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## Oregon Women in Educational Administration: Profiles and an Analysis of Upward Career Mobility Factors

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OREGON WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION:  
PROFILES AND AN ANALYSIS OF UPWARD CAREER  
MOBILITY FACTORS

by

LELAND D. CHAPMAN

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION  
in  
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Portland State University

1989

TO THE OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH:

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AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF Leland D. Chapman for the Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership presented November 9, 1989.

Title: Oregon Women in Educational Administration: Profiles  
and an Analysis of Upward Career Mobility Factors.

APPROVED BY MEMBERS OF THE DISSERTATION COMMITTEE:

  
John Lind, Chairperson

  
David Krug

  
Joan Strouse

  
Mary Smith

  
Daniel O'Toole

The first purpose of this study was to determine from the positive and negative factors identified by Jones and Montenegro (1982), which factors Oregon female administrators perceived had influenced upward mobility in their careers. Study of this topic reveals added information and direction to administrators of

university administrative programs, school board members and school personnel administrators involved in hiring and providing training or staff development. As a result, the commonalities and differences among female school administrators in Oregon are identified. Identifying the factors that relate to upward mobility of tenured and nontenured female administrators provides insight and hopefully will promote further investigation.

A second purpose of the study was to provide, from the demographic data concerning upward career mobility of nontenured and tenured female administrators, a profile that identifies those practices which have proven to be effective when considering career decisions in school administration.

Descriptive statistics were used to quantify the data recovered from a research instrument given to 218 female administrators and responded to by 118 (54%) of the sample population. Parametric and nonparametric tests were administered to the data collected. Analysis of the tests resulted in a written description of the similarities and/or differences between the tenured administrators' and the nontenured administrators' perception of the factors that influenced their upward career mobility. Additionally, the demographic data were analyzed, and profiles of the two groups were developed, again to show similarities and/or differences.

The conclusions of the study supported the research hypotheses that:

- (1) there is no difference between the perception of identified positive and negative factors to upward career mobility between nontenured and tenured female school administrators, and;

(2) there is no difference in the profile of the nontenured and the tenured female school administrator in Oregon.

A synthesis of the conclusions was made from the analysis of positive and negative career factors as well as the profiles of Oregon women school administrators which basically stated that the group of nontenured administrators is much like the group of practicing tenured administrators. Recommendations were made to women aspiring to be administrators for the application of the conclusions and study of identified characteristics or elements of positive and negative factors which lead to upward mobility. Profiles of the administrators were also made for use in self assessment for both groups of female administrators.

Suggestions for additional study were made based upon the findings and experience in conducting the study. Similar study or replication of the study is encouraged in order to provide further insight into the reasons for more women not achieving administrative positions, especially that of principal.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to my wife, Lynn, for her love, encouragement, patience, sacrifice, and forgiveness during this period of our lives. I am deeply indebted to her devotion to this cause, the welfare of our children, Toby and Travis, and to education.

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I am additionally indebted, as education should be, to the many women administrators that made this research possible. They are a vast, relatively untapped resource that can only enhance our profession, hopefully in the near future.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

This study was proposed out of an interest in school administrator preparation and a concern about the lower ratio of female to male administrators in the education profession.

Interest in the area of female administration arose because current literature and my observation as a public school personnel administrator have demonstrated that there is a high female to male ratio in the education field as teachers, but administrative positions are dominated by men. Feuers (1981) states that at the elementary level, 80 percent of the teachers are women and 83 percent of the administrators are men. Statistics show that as the grade level of education and the financial position status increase, the percentage of women in teaching decreases and the percentage of men increases (Schmuck [cited in Stockard, Schmuck, Kempner, and Williams, 1980]). The Oregon School Directory (1988-89), for example, cites only twelve women in superintendent or superintendent-principal positions out of the 304 school districts in the state. Only three are in districts having more than one school or student population greater than 500, and one is an educational service district superintendent in eastern Oregon. At most, only about four percent of the top level administrative positions belong to women.

Education, as a profession in the United States, has been

depicted as a woman's profession because of teaching. The first step in the education career ladder (teaching) has traditionally been dominated by women (Picker, 1980). Education administration as a career for females gained respect following the Civil War, when women were hired as administrators (principals) to replace the men that had been lost during the war (Futrell, 1981; Rosser, 1980). Following the depression of the 1930's and the Second World War, however, men were drawn to education in great numbers. Education generally offered security and opportunity for men of all ages. Men with leadership experience quickly climbed the organizational ladder from teacher to administrator. Colleges created departments of educational administration that actually favored men in leadership roles because of their leadership experience, coaching, or bureaucratic experiences, and not necessarily for their experience in teaching (McPheron and Smith, 1981, Rosser, 1980).

During the 1970's, particularly at the secondary level, teaching became more attractive to men as the salaries grew higher, due primarily to collective bargaining, and teaching also often provided a career path to both elementary and secondary administrative positions. This domination of management in education as a profession by males was not unique, since the majority of most professions in America have been dominated by men (Picker, 1980).

During the mid 1960's and into the 1970's, women were more anxious to get out of the home and enter the labor force. Like previous war time situations, women, during the Viet Nam era, joined the teaching ranks, but unfortunately, their eagerness or their necessity to work, as in the past, kept the wages low. Eventually

women again dominated the teaching profession and unfortunately, perpetuated the notion that teaching was a low status profession (Covel and Ortiz, 1978).

Progress toward equal opportunity in education for women has been slow in the decades since women became the majority in the education profession. (Applebaum, 1981; Blan [cited in Stockard et al]). Although women comprise a large talent pool, they continue to be underrepresented in the administrative ranks. Efforts to change the employment patterns for women are part of a larger social concern -- eradication of sexism (Jewell, 1977; Terborg, 1977). Although steps have been taken to change this outright discrimination through state and federal laws, executive orders, litigation, and affirmative action plans, the results have been poor.

. . . professions traditionally considered to be female because of large numbers of women in them, (e.g., teaching, librarianship, nursing, and social work) are administered by men. With the exception of nursing, these professions also tend to be among the most favorable for enabling men to rise to administrative and managerial positions in proportions that far outnumber women. (Walker, 1981, p. 1)

Clearly, in education, it can be demonstrated that women are not achieving education management positions at a rate proportionate to their teaching participation in the profession, and at a time when female talent is available.

#### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Public school administrative positions are largely dominated by men in the United States, although they are outnumbered by women in the profession (Walker, 1981; Grimm and Stern, 1974). Current

literature indicates that women administrators are increasing in numbers, but not increasing at a rate proportionate to male administrators (Feuers, 1981). Studies indicate (Dandorf, 1980) that most women find it difficult to break into administration. Several studies identify barriers and negative factors, such as lack of educational preparation and fear of, or actual gender discrimination, which may exclude women from administration in education (Barter, 1959; Dole, 1973; Van Meir, 1975; Barnes, 1976).

Literature that identifies the factors which influence upward career mobility for women in the field of education administration does not abound, nor are there clearly identified models to follow. The problems identified for this study focus on two research questions:

1. What are the positive and negative factors that females believe have influenced their success in achieving administrative positions in education in Oregon Public Schools?
2. Through the use of the identified factors of beginning and successful women administrators and their demographic data, is it possible to create a profile that may enable other women aspiring toward a career in administration in Oregon to be more successful in their upward mobility in the administrative ranks?

The lack of an identification of factors that attribute to upward career mobility and no clear model or pattern of success to follow are problems this researcher believes impact the upward career mobility of female administrators.

### ASSUMPTIONS

The following are statements that the researcher believes to be factual, but cannot verify.

1. Respondents are willing to share their perception of their mobility so as to remove barriers to upward mobility in education administration for female educators.
2. Respondents will honestly rank those factors which are perceived to have had the greatest influence on their upward career mobility in education administration.
3. Data collection will be sufficient to develop a personal/professional profile of nontenured and tenured female administrators in the state of Oregon.
4. Response of the subjects will be sufficient to enable the researcher to make statistical judgements about female administrators' upward mobility, which will answer the research questions.
5. Instrumentation (questionnaire) is adequate to identify factors which do have significant impact on upward mobility for female education administrators in Oregon.

### LIMITATIONS

Limitations are those things that are beyond the control of the researcher that may place restrictions on the conclusions of the study and their application to other situations. The following are limitations the researcher believes may be inherent in this study:



1. Female administrators may be reluctant to respond to a study conducted by a male concerning their upward mobility.
2. The inability of the researcher to accurately identify all female administrators for eligible participation was a concern. Some organizations are not allowed to release names or gender of their membership; not all names or gender are identified in directory information; and not all women in administration belong to the customary professional organizations. The subjects were limited to only those females identified in October 1988 by COSA as members.
3. A study was conducted at a specified point in time and doesn't represent an historical trend.
4. The study was conducted in a limited location.
5. Causation relationships cannot be inferred since the independent variables cannot be manipulated.
6. The degree to which subjects reported accurately their feelings and perceptions in the data collection is unknown.
7. The predictive ability of factors may be affected by the lack of variance since the subjects of the study may be homogeneous in terms of their education, and to some degree the way they encounter obstacles and employ strategies in their pursuit of upward career mobility.

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

The terms that follow are operational definitions of terms that may be otherwise used in the field of education. They are used frequently throughout this study and are used to define and identify Oregon women administrators in public education positions by this researcher:

1. Upward mobility: promotion or appointment to a position considered higher within the education administration profession (i.e. assistant principal to principal); a position change which requires greater job responsibility due to the increased (total) number of individuals supervised.
2. Administrative position: A position above that of a classroom teacher or special teacher where the person is required to hold an administrative certificate as defined by Oregon Revised Statutes and Oregon Administrative Rule.
3. Nontenured administrator: An administrator that has fewer than three years experience in Oregon or elsewhere and is currently employed without tenure in an Oregon school district.
4. Tenured administrator: An administrator in an Oregon school district that has achieved tenure in Oregon or an administrator that, as the result of a position change from another state or district, achieved or would have qualified for tenure as an administrator in Oregon due to at least three years of successful evaluation.

## PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The first purpose of the study was to delineate which of the factors identified by Jones and Montenegro (1982), have had a positive or negative influence in upward career mobility of female school administrators in Oregon. The findings of the study add to the research literature on this topic and may reveal added information and direction of interest to administrators of university administrative training programs, school board members and school personnel administrators involved in hiring and providing training or staff development. As a result, the commonalities and differences among female school administrators in Oregon are identified.

A second purpose of the study was to provide, from the demographic and upward career mobility factors provided by aspiring and successful female administrators, a profile that identifies those practices and qualities that have proven to be effective when considering career decisions in school administration. Future female administrators should become aware of the assets women currently possess, and acquire and use those which best enable them to secure a position and succeed as a school administrator.

This study should help make all administrators more aware of the potential of female administrators or females as administrators at a time when, according to the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators, (COOSA), 50 percent of the administrative positions in the state will be vacated in the next five years, primarily by men who will be retiring. Additionally, the study provides information about the effective and innovative practices of tenured and nontenured

female administrators which can be universally applied to all aspiring and/or practicing male and female administrators.

#### METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

The subjects selected were all female school administrators in Oregon. The subjects represented tenured and nontenured female administrators from elementary and secondary schools, district office staffs, and education service district staff personnel employed as supervisors, assistant/associate/vice-principals, principals, administrative assistants, assistant superintendents, and superintendents. Additionally, personnel administrators and superintendents in Oregon districts that employ significantly higher percentages of women than normal were interviewed.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH

Chapter One contains the introduction to the problem, statement of the problem, the research questions, assumptions, limitations, the definition of terms, the purpose of the study, and a short overview of the methods and organization of the research. The remainder of the study is organized as follows: Chapter II contains a review of literature related to the study; Chapter III contains the research design, research questions, and methodology for the study; Chapter IV contains an analysis of data derived from the study and its relationship to the research questions; and Chapter V contains conclusions, implications and recommendations compiled as a result of the research.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### INTRODUCTION

The review of literature contained in this chapter depicts an overview of women in educational administration. The chapter is organized into three areas: 1) An historical overview of administration which includes reference to significant issues that have impacted female administrative involvement; 2) Socialization, cultural and legal factors that have affected educational administration for women; and 3) The present status of literature about female administrators in public education.

In an effort to use the most recent and pertinent literature concerning women in educational administration, a computer search of Educational Resources Informational Center (ERIC) and American and International Dissertation Abstracts, copies of abstracts and ERIC reports were obtained and reviewed. Additionally, publications from professional organizations, government publications, and periodicals were excellent sources of related literature on women in educational administration.

Keeping in mind the previous references in Chapter I concerning the domination of management by men in education as well as other professions, the primary focus of this study is to identify and clarify the factors that relate to upward career mobility of women

educational administrators in Oregon. In order to relate to Oregon women administrators, it is first necessary to understand the history, cultural, social and legal background that has shaped and changed the function of women in educational administration in America.

The majority of the related research in the field of education documents that women are currently underrepresented in educational administration positions in the schools of the nation and in Oregon as well, and further underscores the need for this study.

#### HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Much has been done to document the statistics and actual differences between men and women in educational administration. Research studies in the 1970s addressed some of the causes. Affirmative action policies, Title VII of the Equal Employment Act of 1972, and Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 were viewed as major steps toward the goal of equitable representation of women in administrative levels of education. Several research studies have been undertaken on the national and regional levels to explore and explain the career patterns of women in educational administration, differences in the effectiveness of men and women administrators, recruitment and promotion barriers to women, and specifically, perceived barriers to advancement in educational administration (Pacheco, 1982; Rometo, 1983; Schmuck, 1975; Walker, 1981).

At the national level, The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) recognized the need to provide assistance to increase employment opportunities for women in a mid 1970 resolution which stated that:

Women have historically played an important part in the education of the young, yet their areas of responsibility are still severely limited. The higher an administrative position is in responsibility, prestige and salary, the less likely it is to be held by a woman (Jones, 1980).

In the mid 1970's AASA was awarded a grant by the Ford Foundation to implement a project to assist women interested in administration to advance professionally. The grant was a three year study which had at its initial phase, a series of workshops aimed at women presently in administrative positions who desired to become superintendents. The focus was primarily on assessments and mentoring activities. The second phase of this study centered around building support organizations for females beginning their first administrative position. Although the focus was on superintendent level positions, it was not long before state organizations like Northwest Women in Educational Administration (NWEA) became a voice for the advancement of women in administration on a regional and state level. The third and final phase of the AASA study focused on a series of conferences to explore means of funding, which were to provide equalization of opportunities for minority groups ("Climbing the Ladder", 1982; "Grant to Promote", 1977; "Network Helps", 1979).

Research abounds which shows women as a minority and hints at discrimination practices. In 1980 another AASA/Ford Foundation study, on the national level, resulted in the publication of Climbing the Career Ladder: A Research Study of Women in School Administration. This landmark study investigates barriers for women in school administration, strategies used to overcome them, and factors relating to upward career mobility (Jones & Montenegro, 1982a). This study is

currently being replicated by AASA and the complete results are to be published soon and available in late 1989 (AASA, 1988).

Guy (1979) conducted a study in Ohio involving earning a superintendent's credential. This study was designed to determine whether males and females have different career path expectations. His major goal was to determine why so few superintendents in Ohio were women. Guy found that the traditional views of the women's role, lack of formal preparation, sex discrimination, and personal and family constraints may or may not be barriers in career path expectations. Guy did find, however, that consolidation efforts in Ohio and the downward trend in student population accelerated reductions in administrative staff sizes. The downsizing caused a greater loss in female than in male administrative positions. Sanchez (1984) conducted a national study of female superintendents which focused on two elements: first, to identify positive factors that females believe influenced their achieving a superintendency, and second to compare the factors for women and men who were presently school superintendents. Sanchez concluded that when compared in four categories: family influence, role models, motivation, and personal characteristics, there were significant differences between male and female in all categories as a whole; a significant difference in gender between factors related to role models; a significant difference between male and female in motivation factors and a significant difference between male and female superintendents in the factors related to their personal characteristics. Another recent study conducted by Hines (1985) in Delaware focused on the present status of female educators and the perceived factors that impact



upward mobility to top level administrative positions. Hines found in her study that female educators perceived that they were impacted positively in the areas of self-confidence, high career aspirations, decision making opportunities, better salary, appropriate college preparations and credentials, and general opportunities for advancement. Perceived sex-typing of occupations was the most significant negative factor impacting females securing administrative positions. Additional negative factors included: inadequate recruiting, inadequate networking, discriminating selection and hiring practices, family obligation, and the lack of a mentor or sponsor with clout. Pavlicko (1985) conducted a similar study in Ohio concerning the factors of upward career mobility. Pavlicko concluded that there are many well qualified women who are planning to assume greater responsibility in the higher level administrative positions. Her respondents supported the belief that additional certification and a higher degree makes a candidate more competitive in the educational administrative job market. She also concluded that women have always been motivated, had high perseverance and no longer lack self-confidence or assertiveness, but were still reluctant to take risks. Family support or husband career conflict were not cited as negative factors. Like Hines, Pavlicko found that networking and sponsorship were necessary, but lacking in the clout or support needed to be effective. In summary, Pavlicko, like the others, concluded that women were experiencing internal and external barriers in pursuit of upward career mobility, but they are aware of and are using many strategies to assist them in overcoming their barriers.

Nationally, the rate of decline of female principals in the last twenty-five years has caused concern among trainers of educational administrators (Estimates of School Statistics, 1981-82; National Education Association (NEA), Research/Report, 1973). This decline, coupled with the fact that at the secondary level the number of female administrators has been small and is not getting larger in proportion to their representation in the profession, is cause for concern. This should be a concern for legislators, state and local boards of education, state departments of education and local school districts in implementing affirmative action programs, the results of litigation, and in complying with state and federal guidelines. A 1988 AASA study (Jones & Montenegro, 1988), indicates that women are again making some gains.

In 1974 an Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) report stated:

If a statistical survey shows minorities and females are not participating in your work force at all levels in reasonable relation to their presence in the population and the labor force, the burden of proof is on you to show that this is not the result of discrimination, however inadvertent. There is a strong possibility that some aspect of the system is discriminating (p. 47).

The commission further stated that practices and policies of recruitment, testing, selection, placement, promotion, appointment, and salary as well as fringe benefits are the most likely aspects of the system where discrimination occurs.

Many reasons are given for women being underrepresented in educational administration, such as low aspiration, lack of preparation and qualification, lack of leadership behavior effectiveness, and sex-typing of occupations.

Low aspirations of women in education is not supported by EEOC data. Evidence abounds that shows women aspire to become administrators, but are thwarted in the upward progression toward administration (EEOC, 1974). Evidence is found in court decisions that clearly shows discrimination. In the last ten years, however, equal employment opportunity has begun to reopen in education.

Men, generally in charge of hiring, frequently made the charge that they could not find a qualified female. In 1973, Lyon and Saario made a study of State Departments of Education to substantiate or refute the claim that qualified women were not to be found. The study found that data were generally not collected according to gender. Schmuck (1987) documented that data are still not generally collected by gender.

In the area of leadership effectiveness, Morsink (1969) disputed the notion that females lack effective leadership behavior. In a 1986 study, Dixon studied the Oregon Assessment Center and identified that women typically scored higher than men in the Assessment Center process, but were still overlooked in selection. Dixon, Associate Director of the Oregon Assessment Center and Director of the Oregon Leadership Academy, found that supervisor support or mentoring had a significant impact upon professional development plans and perceived career opportunities for female candidates in the Oregon Assessment Center operated by the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators (COOSA). Dixon further indicated that although mentoring had a significant impact on professional development and perceived opportunities, it could not be shown whether it influenced actual

opportunity. The COSA study certainly does not indicate that women lack effective leadership behavior.

Sex-typing between occupations is perceived to be part of the problem facing females as they aspire to move into administration. Sex-typing occupations (assigning feminine or masculine labels to low level routine tasks) is closely related to sex-role stereotyping (Simmons et al., 1975).

Many of the successful female administrators in education, like Pat Schmuck, Professor of Education at Lewis and Clark College, Portland, Oregon, have taken the time to write books and articles that account for their rise in administration. For women pursuing a career in school administration, these papers, monographs, and books summarize many concerns of aspiring female administrators. Hemming (1981) summarized advice offered to prospective female administrators:

Females can succeed by . . . working hard, being politically aware and able to "play the game", being well prepared academically, experientially, and specifically for issues which arise, setting goals and objectives to work toward, maintaining a sense of humor, and striving to be the crucial one and that opportunities exist for both males and females, provided they meet the requirements for the position in terms of ability, education, and experience" (p. 5).

If you accept the Hemming's statement and those of others like Pfiffner (1976), Breyer and Zalupski (1981), Adams (1979), and Lautzenheizer (1977), why then are women underrepresented in educational administration? Adams (1979) and Lauzenheizer (1977) suggest that while all the information that enables women to succeed applies to men as well, one trait does stand out with men that women seem to not display. Females must learn or be willing to take risks. Breyer and Zolupski (1981) indicate that perhaps most important is the

ability to deal with the pressures that come from the job, personal lives, and from society. These challenges and risks are not insurmountable, but other writers have observed that it is assumed men can handle the previously mentioned conditions, but women must make it known or prove that they are capable and willing to accept challenges and risks. Another quality cited by all of the previously mentioned authors is that women should not be afraid to be women. Lautzenheizer (1977) writes that if a woman feels that being female is a limitation, then it is that feeling itself that could become the real limitation.

Through the 1970's and now, through the 1980's, we have witnessed a revolution in the patterns of women's lives. A 1976 EEOC research report indicated that women had an increased proportion of the labor market, lived longer, and were showing greater educational attainment. Throughout the 1980's many studies have been conducted on the Men vs. Women agenda. In the August 8, 1988, issue of U.S. News and World Report, devoted entirely to the Men vs. Women issue, it was stated: "Biology may not be destiny, but these days researchers are finding some significant differences between the sexes and, in many ways, women are coming out ahead" (p. 50).

Politically, socially, and in management the "gender gap" is real, and literature documents that most of the gap is attributed to the less competitive nature of women. Alice Eaghy, a Purdue University social psychologist, studied 166 management students, hoping to find marked differences in management styles that are used in leadership positions. Eaghy surmised that the lack of differences might be due to the fact that many successful women deliberately imitate masculine ways. One consistent difference was found in the

Purdue study. This study found that men tend to be more "autocratic", making their own decisions, while women tend to consult colleagues and subordinates more often (U.S. News, 1988).

Behavior studies at the University of Toronto have shown that men typically dominate discussions in small groups and spend more time talking than listening. Recently an example of this behavior was documented in an interview contained in an Oregon Schools Study Council (OSSC) article that quoted Scott Baker, a principal in the Estacada School District, as saying, after being observed by his PAL (Peer Assisted Leadership, NWREL) partner, Dr. Mary Smith, a Sandy School District principal, "Mary observed me working with a building support team. The feedback Mary gave me was that I was warm, friendly, and positive . . .", but added Baker, "I was a talker and would out talk the teachers." As a result, he set a personal goal to improve his listening skills (Anderson, 1988).

Although earlier it was stated by Feuers (1981) that about 80 percent of the educational work force were women, a 1988 study by the National Center for Educational Statistics cites that women comprise only 68 percent of the educational work force. Regardless of the percentage of women in the educational work force, the perception is slowly changing toward the realization that women can be good educational managers and leaders.

The history of educational administration in public schools in America must be traced to the big city superintendents of the period from 1870 - 1900. Men of the period tended to be multi-faceted crusaders of the common school movement. Horace Mann,

Ellwood Cubberly, and George Strayer represented the driving force of the prominent educational leaders of the time. These men were lawyers, politicians, college professors, journalists, and religious men. According to Tyack and Hansot (1981), very few of the crusaders actually chose education as his life career. It has been well documented that educational leaders in the second half of the 1800's were mostly Puritans from New England, strong and active church leaders, advocates of Sunday schools and public schools, and promoted social causes like temperance rather than teacher training. Ohles (1978) and Tyack and Hansot (1982) have both documented that very few of the educational leaders had made education a priority for their careers, and in fact, of the 74 leaders Ohles identified, only 41% had ever been teachers or principals.

National Education Association (NEA) documents show that early professionals (teachers and administrators) supported the early leaders of the educational movement. The leaders considered themselves to be the elite of the educational profession and concentrated their expertise in the area of character training (Tyack and Hansot, 1982). Men were often times known to front the ideas of women in the field of education. As male educators moved west and usually into other professions, women found their way into the classroom and a few, like Ella Flagg Young of Chicago, became superintendents. Unfortunately, at this period in our history, wages were low, and it was well documented that women worked for less than half of the same salaries that men were earning. This economic condition of a century ago is still the same underlying factor in the

rapid feminization of the teaching profession today (Strober and Tyack, 1981; Tyack and Hansot, 1982).

The power that men displayed as leaders in education was not unlike that experienced in society in general. Women, as educational leaders, slowly emerged under constraints imposed legally or by society, and devised their own strategies to influence education and women in society. Women educators, such as Francis E. Willard, Mary Lyon, or Mary Catherine Beecher and Zilpah Grant campaigned their causes through a network of seminaries, co-workers, and strong feminist associations they helped to build. The leadership shown by women was powerful, but through their associations they were very careful to not disturb the status quo of the power of men. As a result, women were able to socialize and be effective with their male counterparts and often times persuade them to spend money, employ techniques, and use their power to achieve feminine objectives. Thus, as stated by Tyack and Hansot (1982), men often served as a front for women carrying out their activities.

Ella Flagg Young, the first female superintendent of Chicago Public Schools, was highly supported by women in the profession. Young was the first female president of the NEA. Through this association, women formed powerful lobby groups in support of the appointment of women to school administration positions (Tyack and Hansot, 1982).

In the early part of this century, very few females held influential positions in education, and when they did, the positions usually offered poor pay and were generally considered by men to be less prestigious positions (Schmuck, 1975; Tyack and Hansot, 1982).



For most of this century it has been well documented that women were not attaining the goals that leaders like Francis E. Willard, Ella Flagg Young, or Josephine Corless Preston had predicted.

The National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP 1981) documents that women have been losing ground in education administration. Until recently, statistics on women employed as school administrators show that women have never been able to impact administrative positions for long. For example, in 1928, 85% of the elementary teachers were women and 55% of the principals were women. In the 1950's, women were still 85% of the teaching force, but were only 38% of the elementary administrators. In the 1960's and 1970's, teaching percentages were almost the same as previous decades, but administrative percentages for elementary had dropped to 22% and 18% for secondary. An upward trend began in the early 1980's, and at the present time it is believed that women occupy almost 25% of the elementary principalships and still occupy 85% of the teaching positions.

A recently completed American Association School Administrators' (AASA) survey indicated that in late 1987 and early 1988, overall gains of women in administration were about twice that of minorities. In 1987-88, nearly 30% of more than 113,039 school administrators for which data was gathered, were women. This was a 4% increase over 1984-85 totals. With 39 states reporting data on women and the superintendency, only 3.7% were women. This was, however, a 1% increase over 1984-85. Oregon percentages, at this time, seem to parallel national averages. The greatest rise in administrative positions was found in secondary assistant principalships and

assistant superintendencies. The 1987-88 survey, conducted by Xenia Montenegro and overseen by AASA Associate Executive Director, Effie Jones, is the third undertaken by AASA to assess the status of women and minorities in educational administration.

Causes for the increase in educational management positions for men have been attributed, in part, to the cultural norms and socialization of women in society. Therefore, the next part of the study will focus on the ideas, issues, and factors that other researchers have attributed as reasons for these trends.

#### SOCIALIZATION, LEGAL AND CULTURAL INFLUENCES ON WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Pat Schmuck, (1975) in her studies of women's careers in school administration, suggested that cultural norms have encouraged men to seek school management positions, and in the process, discouraged women from the same aspirations based on gender. Literature makes frequent references to various models and theories that have emerged as the basis for gender role association. The three most frequently cited gender role constraints that cause concern for women in their work, but are not job related are: psychologically self-imposed; family and marginality.

#### Psychologically Imposed Concerns

Based on research in the 1970's and documentation in the 1980's by educational researchers, it is believed that women are caught in a double bind (Horner, 1972; Schmuck, 1987). Women worry about success and failure from two perspectives: One, if they succeed, they are not living up to societal expectations of the female role; and two, if

they fail, they are not living up to their own personal performance expectations. In either case, Kanter (1977) questioned the fear as being one of exposure and visibility. The difficult part for women is that few role models can be found. As previously documented by NAESP statistics and reported by Biklen and Brannigan (1980), Schmuck (1975), Weber, Feldman, and Poling (1981), there are too few women in educational administration to provide role models. Estler (1975) documents that the literature shows that women are willing to take leadership roles in public/community service roles, but for some reason are not as inclined to pursue leadership in education. Breyer and Zalupski (1981) attribute the difference to the fact that women seem to not want to take risks. Lautenheizer (1977) attributed the difference to being afraid to be a woman. Research in this area needs further study so it can be determined why women refrain from taking risks and are not self confident. Although the question is now concentrated on women in education administration, the research additionally needs to determine if the behavior is indicative of all persons who may be weak in organizational or social skills.

### Family Constraints

Research shows that the family role comes first for most women and the occupational role is secondary. Rather than pursue occupations that require time away from the family, extensive preparation educationally, and most importantly, an interrupted labor force participation, most married women have avoided careers of status, like those in school administration. Recent changes in demographics show that women are not as likely to remain married, and

are not as likely to remarry when they are divorced from their spouse. As women have had to enter the work force playing the role of family provider, they have increasingly turned to higher status careers and professional aspirations of management in those careers. Darley (1976) documents this change and the change of fewer children or absence of children at home as a major change in the social status of women with respect to their jobs.

Many women, as documented by Schmuck (1975), pass on opportunities in educational administration because family commitments limit their movement to another community. Schmuck reported that women did not share the same feelings as men about moving their families during preparation stages. Women generally expressed that they were place bound because of their families. As a result of being unable to relocate, Villadsen and Tack (1981), as well as Schmuck, have reported that women often made second choices with their career options, and when offered an administrative opportunity, had to accept a very structured life organized around their family and career.

Although Villadsen and Tack (1981) identified the successful combination of the roles of wife/mother and administrative career as the key factor for success, they also documented that it was very important that their husband and children were supportive and assumed independence and household responsibilities. The importance of this support was reported to be important for psychological and financial reasons rather than for domestic reasons. Others have cited the psychological support of the husbands as being essential for success.

Bogdan (1980) reported that as more mothers have entered the work force, they became more willing to identify motivational factors

related to their going to work. Most often identified as a reason to work were financial reasons, wanting to get out of the house, contact with other adults and relief from child care. It has only been recognized recently that the effects on the children of working fathers has been ignored. Further, it is documented that society expects women to be with their children. This expectation influenced by the attitudes of society, coupled with maternal expectations for the children's well being, is commonly cited by many as a major obstacle for women (Stewart et al., 1982; Villadsen and Tack, 1981).

Women have claimed for a long time that they have worked for financial reasons, but recently working women have mentioned non-financial reasons. In summary, it appears that women have always put their families before their careers. The trend, however, seems to be that women are now more often provided with the flexibility and opportunity to pursue their careers and provide for their families.

#### Gender Issues in Education

Increasingly gender issues are identified as being related to career choices and societal acceptance of women. In 1975, Estler examined social issues that affect the opportunities and aspirations of women in an attempt to explain their underrepresentation in educational administration. Estler indicated that role definitions show women as warm, helpless, humane, conscious of their upbringing, but were not described as leaders. Estler also cited prejudice as another roadblock involved in the selection process by school districts. Research has shown that regardless of the qualifications,

women are often overlooked by men, who dominate the selection process (Clement, 1975; Estler, 1975; Faunce, 1977; Stockard, 1979).

Characteristics such as dominance, achievement, autonomy, and aggression are equated with the male image. Women are characterized as timid, emotional, passive, humble and respectful (Bach, 1976). Since leadership skills are usually described as male skills, it is assumed that women are socialized for different roles and responsibilities, such as counseling, curriculum specialists, and other positions subordinate to men (Bach, 1976; Epstein, 1971; Estler, 1975; Frasher and Frasher, 1979).

Discrimination of women is based on the fact that men hold most of the administration positions and tend to facilitate placement of persons like themselves. Women have systematically been excluded from administration and have had to modify their career designs to accept only those positions that were available.

In a paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association in March, 1988, Myra Strober stated that, "Women, too, make choices about occupations. But women's choices are constrained by the fact that men make their choices first. Women have a smaller range of occupations from which to choose." Additionally, Strober and Arnold (1987) document that, ". . . with such a large proportion of the jobs already filled by men, the employer would probably not have attempted to fill the positions . . . they would have been marginalized, by being paid less and deemed ineligible for promotion opportunities."

In the area of leadership, studies do not measure actual competency, but perceived competencies. The few studies that have

been done in this area support the belief that there are significant differences in the leadership behavior of male and female principals (Adkison, 1981; Gross and Trask, 1976; Morsink, 1970). This fact and the fact that there are few female role models are significant factors for women not entering administration (Estler, 1975).

A January 1989 article titled: "With a Little Help From My Friends", by Joan C. Johnson in Nations Business, documents mentors in Oregon and their effects on reaching the top rank in their careers. Mentoring helps women learn to do more than just deal with gender barriers. Mentors can help them assess their strengths, abilities, and opportunities. Mentors can often point out ways to get around obstacles and suggest ways to gain experience.

The one fact that seems evident is that some highly qualified professionals may not be provided the opportunity to use their ideas and skills in positions that are most suited to their aspirations and capabilities (Estler, 1975).

#### Legal Factors Involving Women

Not until the mid 1960's did women really begin approaching equity in our society, and today equity is still a disputed issue. The social movements of the 1960's primarily focused on blacks and women, who, in part, concentrated their demands on the schools. In the search for equity and dignity, both groups initially believed that education was the place in which equal rights could be achieved. Feminists in the sixties used many of the same strategies of the blacks to gain recognition in their move to achieve justice and a sense of identity (Tyack and Hansot, 1982).

Among the first of notable legislated changes for women was the Equal Pay Act of 1973, which amended the Fair Labor Standards Act and required all employers covered by the act to grant equal pay to men and women doing equal work (Jewell, 1977). Education, unfortunately, was not included.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was a major step toward forcing employers and institutions to look at equity and to eliminate discrimination in education, as well as all other areas in "The Great Society" (Tevis, 1981). Like the Equal Pay Act, the Civil Rights Act did not mention women as a group because it did not include, as a factor, discrimination on the basis of sex. It was not until 1972 that Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was amended and included a prohibition of discrimination on the basis of sex and extended the law to public schools, which had previously been excluded.

In 1967 women were included as a protected class in the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA). This protected all workers 40-65 in all fields of work from discrimination on the basis of age. In 1974 this act was amended to protect workers from age 40-70.

Executive Order 11246 of 1965, which prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, religion, color, or national creed for institutions receiving federal contracts over \$10,000 also did not originally include women (Dorr, 1972). In 1976 this order was amended to include women (Tyack and Hansot, 1982).

In 1972 Title IX of the Educational Amendments stated that participation or benefits of a federally funded educational program could not be limited by discrimination in the protected areas and



included gender. The greatest impact that has developed from Title IX was in the area of participation and sharing of funds in athletic programs. While not limited to athletics, Tyack and Hansot (1982), have noted that Title IX also applied to administration, curriculum, scholarships, and career counseling in education.

Originally, three sections of the 1964 Civil Rights Act were of importance to women. By 1972, Title VII and IX had been amended to erase gender discrimination. Title II, Vocational Education, was not changed to provide gender equity until 1976.

Legislation written specifically for women in education was first passed in 1974 as the Women's Educational Equity Act Program (WEEAP). Several programs have been designed and funded under WEEAP. Some of those that have had impact on educational leadership are: Female Leaders for Administration and Management in Education (FLAME); Delta Design for Leadership; Internship Certification; Equity Leadership and Support (ICES); and Leadership Training Attitudes (McPheron and Smith, 1981).

Discrimination based on gender has not been eliminated, but positive steps have been taken that have reinforced and provided women with legal opportunity toward equity and leadership in education.

#### THE PRESENT STATUS OF WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION (1980-88)

The decade of the 1970's ended with women being afforded greater rights, socialization, and acceptance in the work place in theory, but in fact, education administration saw little change for women.

In the early 1980's a slight upward trend began which brought the percentage of female elementary principals to 23% of the total (National Elementary Principals, 1981). At the secondary level, the same trend appeared to occur. Three percent females were reported by the National Education Association in 1970 (NEA, 1971). The National Association of Secondary Principals reported 7% in 1977, and in 1982 Jones and Montenegro reported the level of female representation to be ten percent. At the district office and superintendent level, the representation had not changed and was still less than .5% of the work force.

In the early 1980's two studies had considerable impact on the focus of women in educational administration: The AASA, Aware Project, and the 1982 Jones and Montenegro study resulting in the publication, Climbing the Career Ladder: A Research Study of Women in School Administration. These studies investigated the barriers for women in school administration, the strategies used to overcome them and other factors relating to upward career mobility. The information provided by these studies appeared to give an immediate increase in elementary/secondary principalships. The most dramatic increase was a boost of 1.5% at the superintendent level (Jones and Montenegro, 1982b). Assisting women through awareness of mobility factors appeared to be successful in the 1977-1982 period. In the five years since 1982 the focus and interest in female administration has increased the national percentage of elementary principals to about 28%. At the secondary level increases have been noted in vice principalships. At the district office level the percentage of women has remained about the same with a 3% national involvement. In Oregon

there are currently (1988) twelve superintendents or superintendent/principals, or three percent of the state's population, according to the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators.

### Women As Administrators

Each year in Oregon many administrative positions become vacant. Each district has a different selection method for administrators, but the local autonomy of school districts has clear implications for the hiring of administrators. One thing is clear, however, in the analysis of board involvement that impacts the hiring of women - nationally, most board members are men. Even with affirmative action policies it seems all too clear that boards - predominately male, choose male administrators. Although the representation of women board members is higher in urban areas, they too are a minority. Even if boards do want to hire the best person for the job, ". . . it is not surprising that predominately white and male boards tend to entrust this sacred responsibility (hiring) to someone like themselves - a white male." (Schmuck, 1987). Is one answer to the problem the involvement of more women as board members?

Pat Fitzwater of the Oregon School Boards Association (1989) reported that although no indepth study had been done for several years, the current membership is composed of 25% women and 75% men. These percentages are about what OSBA confirmed the last time a study was done, according to Fitzwater.

While much has happened since Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972, mandating sex equity under the law, not much has happened in reality in the area of school administration. Each school district

has been required to appoint a Title IX officer to ensure that educational opportunity and hiring are enforced. With no significant changes in the percentages of women hired as administrators since 1972, it is hard to believe that districts have done more than perfunctorily performed what has been necessary to ensure legal compliance.

Schmuck reported (1987) that public policy regarding sex equity has been eroded by the administration, the courts, and Congress . . . even the public sentiment of educators is shifting away from considerations of gender equity. An analysis of educational reform reports by Tetreault and Schmuck (1985) concluded, "The reform books, commissioned reports selected for our analysis clearly indicate the past decade of legislation, new scholarship on women, research and action for sex equity in schools has gone unheeded. Gender is not a relevant category in the analysis of excellence in schools . . . even Title IX is ignored." (1985, p. 63).

It appears that in the 1980's public sentiment may put the gains of the 1960's and 1970's in jeopardy. Even though the interest in gender issues may not have increased, it is clear that from the gains that were made that there are new conceptual frameworks for building research and theories about women and education. Traditionally literature has stereotyped the role of women, but as feminists challenged the stereotype, a new scholarship on women emerged. The new scholarship on women suggests that the assessment of working women misleads and inadequately represents today's woman because it is based on old stereotyped assumptions (Bilkin/Shakeshaft, 1985). Schmuck (1987) divided the new scholarship of women into two categories.

First a different analysis of data is made that searches for the theoretical framework by which to understand the work of women and is also critical of the notion of sex stereotypes. Secondly, it has undertaken new research to find out the actual behavior of women in the work place. Schmuck emphasizes that these approaches do not oppose each other. They actually build on each other. Researchers formerly paid little attention to what women actually did on their jobs. The characteristics of women at work only recently have been subject to study.

The depiction of women as part of our educational history is another part of the new scholarship. The exclusion of women in documentation of American education has presented a distorted view of history and created illusions about the involvement and ability of women. This misrepresentation has created a resurgence in educational literature that restores women as a part of our educational history. Many scholars have been part of this movement - Kaufemen, Hoffman, Kerber, Lerner, Tyack and Hansot, Melder, and Flexner, are among those Schmuck (1987) cites as having restored women to their proper place in educational history.

More recently, however, the role of research in the area of gender interest in education has been conducted by scholars like Biklen; Lightfoot; Freedman, Jackson, and Boles; Apple; Shakeshaft; and Lather. Schmuck (1987) cites these researchers as contributing to the study of the behavior and influences of gender in education.

One last concern about gender issues must be discussed. Shulman and Sykes (1983) indicated that a result of the women's movement might actually be backlash. This "backlash" may have created a different

mindset about the traditional professions of today and, in fact, be driving women to other business professions. Adkinson (1981) points out that in 1966, 760,000 women were enrolled in colleges of education and in 1979 the number was reduced to 601,000. On the other hand she points out that during the same period colleges of business gained from 204,000 to 819,000 in female enrollment. The reduction of the number of women involved in education may be a reason fewer are involved in administration. As Sykes (1983) pointed out, women inclined to be managers or administrators may no longer be as large a part of the traditional "female profession".

Pat Schmuck stated (1987):

Not only is teaching no longer the zenith to which young women aspire; it is often seen as the wrong choice for competent and capable women. The woman who chooses to enter and remain in education is seen as an anachronism in the eyes of her more liberated peers. Women who teach are often seen as "unliberated", ones who have not freed themselves from the cultural stereotypes about women's place in society. Perhaps a stereotype in reverse is operating; women who enter education (administration) do so because they are seen as adopting the denigrated position of women in the United States ( p. 93).

The new scholarship on women has no doubt raised the consciousness of all people about the abilities, needs and behaviors of women in education administration.

### Changes in Expectations

Picker (1980) explored the conflict that continues between the trend that limits careers of women in administration and the pressures to increase opportunity in response to affirmative action. She found four distinct areas that were significant for career advancement of women in educational administrative positions:

1. Younger women are entering administration on a more equal

basis with men. This means that women now spend the same number of years teaching as their male counterparts, where as in the past, women taught considerably more time than men before becoming administrators.

2. Women receive a more significant amount of sponsorship than male counterparts. Younger women receive slightly more than other women, but both receive more than older men, who receive more than younger men.
3. High career aspirations characterize female administrators. They attain more education and specific experience and a greater desire to advance on the career ladder. Women feel they are capable of making difficult and quality decisions, and additionally feel that they are well organized and are better able to cope with stress and family commitments because of their "dual role" experiences.
4. Female administrators perceive the existence of discriminatory practices and believe they must be more highly qualified than their male counterparts to overcome such practices. Women recognize they work in a male environment and may encounter discrimination in the process of selection and promotion.

The American Association Schools Administrators' study, Climbing the Career Ladder: A Research Study of Women in School Administration (Jones and Montenegro, 1982a), provided an empirical investigation of barriers, strategies and other factors that contribute to the upward career mobility of women in educational administration. It is out of interest in this AASA research that the interest of mobility factors

of Oregon Women in Administration grew. The instrument used in this research is modification of the AASA questionnaire. Recommendations from the AASA study were:

1. Other organizations should provide more support for women within the areas of job information, training, and available career opportunities in addition to institutional and moral support.
2. Women in school administration should be aware that their skills are transferable and may provide employment opportunities outside education.
3. Care in the selection and training of teachers with qualities of administrative interest or potential will result in long term benefits for gender equity in education administration.
4. Hiring and recruiting practices and policies should be examined or reexamined by boards or district administrators to assure equity for women and underrepresented groups, (Jones and Montenegro, 1982a). The AASA has continued to update this study periodically.

#### A Comparison to Business Management

It has not been education that has opened its doors and enforced policy and changed practices which have better accommodated women as managers. Business and educational history have paralleled each other to a large degree in America. Since 1972, however, there seems to be a distinct increase in the acceptance of women as managers in the field of business. First, equal pay issues were addressed. Although litigation fostered some decisions, business managers were quicker to realize the value of having a more balanced work force (Jewell, 1977).



Top level policy statements were uniformly formulated and announced throughout the organizations endorsing affirmative action. Today there are many monthly or periodic publications geared to women in business management; "Women's Guide to Management Positions"; "Executive Female"; "Savvy" and the usual women's magazines with numerous articles about women in management. Nations Business, May, 1989, highlights "The Age of the Woman Entrepreneur". This article indicates that women already own a third of all small business. This is a better percentage than those in educational administration.

Women have shown the greatest gains in administration beyond entrepreneurship in the area of sales, public relations and engineering.

Female Executive(1986), reported that females in engineering had risen from 1.8% in 1974 to 14.7% in 1984; one-third of the managers in sales in 1986 were women. This was a fifty percent increase from 1980.

The National Association for Female Executives reported in Executive Female (1987) that executive jobs are on the rise in career counseling, accounting, financial planning, real estate, health care, telemarketing, banking and insurance. Obviously, there are many more areas for opportunity in business, but each area shows a greater potential for female success than does education.

Female owned business rose 62.5% from 1980-1986. During that period male owned businesses increased 33.4%. In 1972 women owned less than 5 percent of American businesses. The rapid increase has experts, like Small Business Association's Carol Corckett, predicting,

". . . it is anticipated that women will comprise half of all self-employed people by the year 2,000." (Nations Business, 1989).

In Exceptional Entrepreneurial Women, (1988), Russel R. Taylor, director of the H. T. Taylor Institute for Entrepreneurial Studies at the College of New Rochelle, New York, profiles 15 women business owners. Among the characteristics Taylor notes in his subjects are the ability to make things happen, self-confidence, and a drive for autonomy. Additionally, Taylor noted a high level of energy, exceptionally good health, and a regular program of exercise.

Nonetheless, the outlook is optimistic for women in business who choose the entrepreneurial life. Sole proprietorship is often seen as a stepping-stone to ownership of larger, more aggressive businesses, and no one knows yet how many women are "graduating" from sole proprietorships to partnerships and corporations. "I think women are realizing now how good they are. They realize they can compete," says Fran Jabara of Wichita State, where women make up 46 percent of the enrollment in entrepreneurship courses (Nations Business, 1989).

#### SUMMARY

The review of literature was divided into three areas: 1) An historical overview of recent events; 2) Socialization, cultural and legal factors affecting administration for women; and 3) the present status of literature about female participation in educational administration. This review documents that women were put in a "back seat" to men in the management of schools in America as well as in Oregon. The review documents the social and cultural influences on women as they pursue administration as an educational career. It

shows how women have been discouraged, as well as the constraints applied to them as they have strived to become managers in a "man's profession". The review also explores the recent literature which advances theories in new scholarship about the role of women in society and in education.

The importance of knowing the factors of success and those things that others have recognized as factors of upward mobility were documented and cited as a partial solution to the underrepresentation of women in educational administration.

Creating a profile of an Oregon, female school administrator was a primary focus of the research. The research questions were designed to show if change was occurring by comparing the group of practicing nontenured and tenured administrators. The questions were raised primarily because of the interest and the presentation of information found in the works of Tyack and Hansot, Schmuck and Shakeshaft. The recency of their work and their findings caused concern about the development of women as administrators in the field of education.

Shakeshaft compiled a profile of the female administrator from information she located in many sources. An intended result of this research was to provide a profile of practicing nontenured and tenured school administrators in Oregon and a comparison of their profiles.

The only recent standard found with which to compare the profile of Oregon women was presented by Shakeshaft (1987) in her work, Women In Educational Administration. Shakeshaft found the female administrator to be in her mid to late 40's. If she was not white, she was somewhat younger. Blacks were younger than whites, and Hispanic females were the youngest of all other racial and ethnic

groups. She found that the higher the position in administration, the older the women were, and also found that K-12 administrators were older than higher education administrators. Picker, cited in Shakeshaft (1987), indicated that "younger women who enter administration are not waiting as long for administrative appointment as did their older female colleagues." (1980, p. 146).

Shakeshaft further described the female administrator as coming from a rural background, most often the firstborn, raised in a two parent family, with more education than parents, more often married than not, Protestant, a registered Democrat, and a member of civic groups. Although Shakeshaft further describes the female administrator, those comparisons provide a guideline as comparisons are drawn between the research groups of practicing nontenured and tenured Oregon women school administrators. The standards documented by Shakeshaft and others are those by which Oregon women will be compared.

## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURES

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the procedures that were employed to conduct this study.

The design of the study, a description of the population from which the sample was taken, and the instrumentation used in the data collection are reviewed. The statistical procedures used and the variables investigated are also discussed in this chapter.

### THE SAMPLE

The population selected for this study was 218 females certified and practicing administration in the state of Oregon identified as members of the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators for the 1988-89 school year. They were sent questionnaires concerning the upward mobility of female administrators in education. The respondents were given a three week period in which to respond. Fifty-four percent of the population (118), returned questionnaires within the three week collection period. The women responding to this study were sampled only as a whole population known to COSA, and were not necessarily all women administrators practicing in Oregon.

## DESIGN

Because existing variables could not be manipulated, this empirical investigation was designed to examine the internal and external factors that currently exist in female career mobility in educational administration in Oregon.

The research design chosen for this study included qualitative and quantitative analysis. Descriptive techniques employed included the reporting of demographic background, personal information relating to their mobility, such as family status, number of children, etc., and a self description inventory about personal and demographic characteristics of the involved administrators. The use of quantitative analysis was done through the use of the nonparametric test, Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) first because it is based upon discrete data rather than interval data. The nonparametric test is less precise, and therefore has less power than a parametric test, and is not as likely to reject a null hypothesis. The parametric test used was the t-test, which displayed the significance of the difference between the means of two independent groups. Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) and t-tests were conducted to compare the likenesses and differences between the identified groups of successful and practicing administrators.

The rejection or acceptance of the null hypothesis was based upon the .05 alpha level of significance. The 5 percent (.05) alpha level of significance is the standard for psychological and educational research. Rejecting a null hypothesis at the .05 level indicates that a difference in means as large as that found between

the two groups would not likely have resulted from sampling error in more than 5 out of 100 replications of the experiment.

#### INSTRUMENTATION

The instrument used for this study was a modification of an instrument developed by AASA and used in their mobility studies of superintendents in the late 1970's and early 1980's during the AASA/Ford Foundation workshops. Using the results of these early national studies of female career mobility in educational administration and the published results of the study: Climbing the Career Ladder: A Research Study of Women in School Administration (Jones and Montenegro, 1982a) adaptation was made to test the identified factors, not the identification of factors.

The AASA questionnaire was selected for this research because it has validity and reliability that were verified on a national basis. AASA validated the questionnaire through the following process:

1. Drafts of the instrument were reviewed by two researchers and two administrators. The reviewers evaluated the instrument in terms of clarity and appropriateness of the questions.
2. The revised questionnaire was pretested on a sample of at least seven school administrators to determine its adequacy in capturing the required information and its ease in administration. The pretest respondents were also asked to provide other comments they might have had. Revisions were then made and the questionnaire finalized.

Like the AASA instrument, the modified instrument for this study was sent to four nontenured and four tenured

female administrators. Modifications were made based on reaction to the instrument trial.

3. After the survey was completed and the responses analyzed, the reliability of the questionnaire was examined by means of an internal consistency measure (KR20), a statistical measure of internal reliability. The reliability estimate (.60+) was found satisfactory. (E.F. Jones and X.P. Montenegro in Pavlicko, 1985).

#### HYPOTHESES

This study was designed to test empirically the most relevant variables (positive and negative) of upward mobility between the groups of nontenured (new administrators) and tenured (more than 3 years) administrators in the state of Oregon. Additionally, the study was intended to create a profile of Oregon female administrators and to compare those that have been successful to those aspiring to be successful after having achieved an administrative position in education. The profile created is compared to suggestions made by Shakeshaft (p. 56-77) in *Women in Educational Administration* (1987).

Although the problem focus was previously stated as simple research questions, the two proposed research questions follow as statements of hypotheses in the null form:

1. There are no significant differences between tenured and nontenured female administrators in the factors they identify that have influenced their upward mobility.
2. There is no significant difference between the profile of a tenured and a nontenured female public school administrator



in Oregon.

The general hypotheses were stated to determine the variables most relevant to upward mobility in this study and to document any difference between those factors as experienced or perceived by women new to administration and those that have successfully worked as an administrator. Additionally, the creation of a profile of each group for the purpose of comparison was made.

#### DATA COLLECTION

Following review and approval for use of the instrument by the Human Subjects Review Committee at Portland State University, the questionnaire was mailed to all 218 female administrators identified as members of COSA currently identified as employed in Oregon (fall 1988).

A cover letter explained the general purpose of the study and also outlined the directions for responding. A stamped, self-addressed envelope was included for the return of the instrument. Additionally a separate stamped, self-addressed envelope was included to return an informed consent form and to insure confidentiality of the survey. No coding was used to identify the respondents. Fifty-four percent (118) of the questionnaires were returned as well as 54% of the informed consent forms. Two consent forms were not signed. All but 10 percent (99) of the responses came in the first week.

Prior to the actual mailing of questionnaires to the entire population, a sample test was conducted. The test sample included eight practicing female administrators, four of whom are nontenured

(0-3 years) and four tenured (3+ years). The response was 100%. The type of job experience was from superintendent/principal and vice principal. There were no high school administrators used. All persons involved in the trial were elementary or middle school/junior high administrators. The questionnaire was challenged as to wording. Slight modification to the instrument was made based on the trial and discussion with dissertation advisor concerning implication and need for change. The trial was not analyzed for other than its readability by respondents. The trial persons were included in the final mailing.

No attempt was made after the three week data collection period to increase participation in the study by sending reminder postcards or similar measures. The researcher felt that there might be a different mind set or attitude if respondents had a greater period in which to respond. If the study were to be conducted again, an attempt would be made to increase participation beyond a 54% response rate and to determine whether there was a difference in responses from early to later respondents.

The following is a list of the number and comments made concerning the instrument during data collection.

- 1) Put directions for each section at front of each section, not at the beginning of the instrument.
- 2) Could not finish . . . I am unsure from directions if these answers are to be my assessment of how they impact me or women in general. (1)

The percentage of comments from respondents about the instrumentation was 1.75% of the total population. All comments concerned directions.

Two were concerned with their location (1.68%) and one (.84%) was concerned about the clarity of the directions.

The informed consent forms contained the following comments:

- 1) "P.S. I wrote a master's on similar subject in 1985!" (1)
- 2) You could simplify consent form. (1)
- 3) "I get nervous with consent forms." (1)
- 4) "I have been put back into classroom due to budget reductions. - Good Luck!" (1)
- 5) "Purpose of research needs to be stated in letter." (1)

Comments were made on the consent form by 4.58% of the respondents. Three comments (2.75%) were general in nature, one (.84%) constructive, and one (.85%) gave information.

#### STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the following:

- 1) Demographic information and background of women in the sample.
- 2) The perceived positive and negative factors that have impact on career mobility on female administrators in Oregon.
- 3) The self-description inventory of personal characteristics.
- 4) The career patterns of women responding to the instrument.

The study also compared women new to educational administration (nontenured) and those who have been in administration (tenured). A parametric test (t-test) and a nonparametric test (Chi-Square) were used to test the statistical significance of the proposed relationships between nontenured and tenured administrators. These relationships were also used to write a profile of each group.

The statistical program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, SPSS, (Nie, Hull, 1981) was used. Tables were prepared from the data analysis using various program formats.

#### SUMMARY

Identifying the sample; establishing the design instrumentation and method of data collection; providing a review of the hypotheses; identifying the measures of statistical analysis to be used; and stating any additional limitations were outlined as an overview of procedures to be used in the investigation of factors of upward career mobility for women school administrators in Oregon.

The population of 218 women members of COSA was chosen as the sample, as most (95%) of the administrators in Oregon belong to this professional organization. It also was believed that sampling the groups as a whole would give the most complete data.

The design of the study was emperical and included descriptive statistic techniques, nonparametric tests (Chi-Square) and parametric tests (t-tests). The instrument (see Appendix A) was a modification of the AASA instrumentation used and designed in the early 1980's by Jones and Montenegro.

The hypotheses centered around the dependent variables, positive or negative, perceived to be most relevant to upward career mobility of nontenured and tenured administrators (independent variables) in Oregon. In addition to the comparisons of factors for each group, a profile of each group and women administrators in general was constructed.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### INTRODUCTION

Presented in this chapter are the findings developed from data collected in the following areas:

- a) a description of the sample responses;
- b) analysis of questionnaire returns;
- c) a description of the sample
- d) interviews;
- e) research hypotheses and findings; and
- f) other findings related to the upward career mobility of female school administrators in Oregon.

#### PRESENTATION OF DATA

This study postulated that there were no expected differences between the groups of nontenured and tenured administrators and 1) the factors they identify that influenced their upward mobility or 2) their general demographic profile as groups.

#### Analysis of Questionnaire Returns

The population selected for this study included 218 females working as administrators as identified by the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators (COSA). This population represented all women

members of COSA except for student members who were not actually employed as school administrators. One-hundred-eighteen (118) responded to the questionnaire after a set three week data gathering period.

Additionally, 16 surveys were returned over a six week period after the initial three week data gathering period. These 16 were not included in the study. Although the inclusion of the late questionnaires would have statistically improved the response rate, it was believed that the longer response period might have contaminated the original group of responses due to an extended period of time in which to think about a response.

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION SAMPLE

The surveys were coded (1) for the nontenured administrators and (2) for the tenured administrators. About sixty-four percent (64.3%) of the population were nontenured and about thirty-six percent (35.7%) of the respondents were tenured. The nontenured group was almost twice as large. This may indicate that there is at least a trend toward more women in administration, or it could indicate that there are more nontenured administrators in general.

Table I displays the number and percent of the positions presently held by the respondents and their status of being either nontenured or successful.

TABLE I

## PRESENT POSITION

Present Position	Nontenured		Tenured	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Supervisor/Coordinator/Director	30	40%	10	24%
Assistant Principal	16	22%	9	22%
Principal - Elementary School	22	30%	9	21%
Principal - Middle/High School	4	5%	11	26%
Superintendent	2	3%	3	7%

Prior to becoming administrators, members of the two groups had been in a variety of educational positions. Both groups were composed of women that had previously been grade school classroom teachers (15.5%); taught speech (14.7%); taught English, been activities/attendance supervisor, coordinator, curriculum coordinator, or an administrative assistant .9% of the time respectively.

Nontenured administrators had also been counselors (6.9%); music teacher (1.7%); and science, math, psychologists, media specialists/librarians, directors of instruction, or a teacher on special assignment, each .9% of the time. Tenured administrators also had previous positions in teaching unique to their group. Tenured administrators, unlike nontenured administrators, had previously been athletic directors, youth employment coordinators, each .9% of the time. Tables II and III depict the position held immediately prior to the current position. Table IV is an overview of the types of all positions identified.

The position immediately prior to the first administrative position held for both groups was that of supervisor or coordinator. Nontenured administrators frequently (50.0%) had been supervisors, while tenured administrators (31.9%) had been coordinators. Shakeshaft (1987) indicates that the usual progression is supervisor, then to the central office as a director or coordinator because of specific knowledge in an area. Generally this hierarchy is followed by a principalship at the elementary level and then, although less likely, a principalship at the secondary level. Table IV clearly indicates conformity to Shakeshaft's findings of 1987.



TABLE II  
POSITION HELD IMMEDIATELY PRIOR TO CURRENT POSITION

Prior Position	Nontenured		Tenured	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Teacher - English	1	1%	1	1%
Teacher - Math	1	1%	0	
Teacher - Music	2	2%	0	
Teacher - Science	1	1%	0	
Teacher - Special Ed	14	19%	3	7%
Teacher - Gradeschool Classroom	16	22%	2	5%
Library/Media Specialist	3	4%	0	
Counselor	8	11%	0	
Psychologist	1	1%	0	
Consultant	0		2	5%
Assistant Principal	4	5%	17	41%
Principal	2	3%	10	24%
Director of Instruction	1	1%	0	
Administrative Assistant	4	5%	2	5%
Activities Supervisor	1	1%	1	2%
Special Services	2	3%	0	
TAG Instructor	1	1%	0	
Athletic Director	0		1	2%
Interim Administrator	2	2%	0	
TOSA	3	4%	0	
Public Relations	1	1%	0	
Youth Employment Coordinator	0		1	2%
Coordinator	5	7%	2	5%
Attendance Supervisor	1	1%	0	

TABLE III  
POSITION HELD IMMEDIATELY PRIOR TO CURRENT POSITION  
(SUMMARY)

Prior Position	Nontenured		Tenured	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Teacher	36	49%	6	14%
Assistant Principal or Principal	6	8%	27	64%
Other Non-classroom Position	32	43%	9	22%

TABLE IV  
TYPE OF POSITION HELD IMMEDIATELY PRIOR TO  
CURRENT POSITION

Prior Position	Nontenured		Tenured	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Supervisor	58	78%	5	12%
Coordinator	16	22%	37	88%

### POSITIVE FACTORS

An obvious fact of the population sample is that nontenured administrators have less experience than their tenured counterparts. This fact is displayed in Table V. It was originally believed that there would be a difference in the two populations. Nontenured administrators were thought to be younger, have less educational experience, were more likely to have been part of more recent administrative trends, and therefore, different from the tenured administrator and have a very different administrative and personal profile as suggested by Picker (1980) and others in the review of literature.

It is also significant that, as demonstrated in Table V for the most part, nontenured administrators had been in their previous position a greater percent of the time. It is unknown why 8% of the nontenured persons indicated they had been in their position 4 years or more.

In addition to creating demographic information for a profile of women administrators in the two groups, a major purpose of the study was to look at the positive and negative factors that influenced the administrators and determine if there were significant differences.

Jones and Montenegro (1982) identified factors believed to be positive and negative influences to administrators. These lists were presented to both Oregon groups with no significant difference found between the factors using the nonparametric test, Chi-Square. The list of positive factors included the twenty items listed on Table VI.

TABLE V  
YEARS IN PRESENT JOB

Number of Years	Nontenured		Tenured	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0 to 3 Years	68	92%	28	67%
4 to 11 Years	6	8%	14	33%

TABLE VI  
YEARS IN PRIOR JOB

Number of Years	Nontenured		Tenured	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0 to 3 Years	33	45%	25	60%
4 to 7 Years	20	27%	9	21%
8 to 25 Years	21	28%	8	19%

TABLE VII  
POSITIVE INFLUENCES MEAN SCORES

	Nontenured	Tenured	t	Value	Prob.
1. Adequate financial resources for formal preparation.	2.32	2.46	-.69	n.s.	
2. High aspiration for an administrative position.	1.38	1.38	-.02	n.s.	
3. College preparation and appropriate credentials.	1.62	1.40	1.40	n.s.	
4. Approval from family and friends.	1.91	2.31	-2.00	n.s.	
5. Increase job responsibility.	1.81	1.68	.86	n.s.	
6. Better salary/better benefits.	1.89	1.81	.50	n.s.	
7. Co-worker/organization approval.	2.30	2.17	.65	n.s.	
8. Supervisors Approval/encouragement.	1.53	1.56	-.19	n.s.	
9. Career role model.	1.82	1.71	.57	n.s.	
10. Opportunity for personal advancement.	1.55	1.63	-.57	n.s.	
11. Opportunity/professional advancement.	1.43	1.62	-1.43	n.s.	
12. Self-confidence.	1.99	1.92	.32	n.s.	
13. Career role model of mother.	3.57	3.52	.20	n.s.	
14. Marital status.	3.07	2.77	1.15	n.s.	
15. Level of teaching.	2.98	2.71	1.05	n.s.	
16. Effective affirmative action program.	2.97	2.61	1.50	n.s.	
17. Nondiscriminating hiring practices.	2.36	2.07	1.24	n.s.	
18. Flexible work schedule.	3.22	3.24	-.11	n.s.	
19. Equal distribution of work assignment between sexes.	3.07	2.07	1.48	n.s.	
20. Assessment center review.	3.01	3.07	-.30	n.s.	

Table VII and later Table VIII represent the positive and negative mean scores respectively of a five point Likert-type scale. Respondents rated the positive and negative factors from (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree. The questionnaire was reordered to allow this rating. Originally the questionnaire ordered the ratings: (1) strongly agree; (2) agree; (3) disagree; (4) strongly disagree; and (5) no opinion. To employ a Likert-type scale it was necessary to revalue the responses to (1) strongly agree; (2) agree; (3) no opinion; (4) disagree; and (5) strongly disagree. As is standard practice in survey research, the 5 points are assumed to constitute an equal interval scale when subjected to statistical analysis.

Describing characteristics of groups by using averages is generally understood by statisticians and nonstatisticians. The basis for comparison (average) was the mean or arithmetic average of the responses to each of the positive and negative factors. The mean was chosen since, in addition to the information that it provides, it is the base from which many other important measures could be computed.

Each factor (positive or negative) was analyzed as to the degree to which the groups agreed. Both groups agreed that having (#1) financial resources for formal preparation was a positive factor. Nontenured and tenured strongly agreed that (#2) high aspiration for the position was a positive factor. College preparation (#3) was also strongly agreed to as important. Approval of the family for the profession was also agreed to as important with a tendency to strongly agree. Increased responsibility (#5) was agreed to strongly by both groups.

A better salary (#6) was rated agree to strongly agree by both groups as well. Approval by the organization (#7) was rated agree to strongly agree, but 19.1% of both groups disagreed. Supervisor approval (#8) was rated strongly agree by nontenured and tenured administrators. As to whether a mentor (#9) was positive, both groups strongly agreed it was important. The opportunity for advancement (#10) was also seen as being a strong positive factor. Career aspiration (#11) was seen as strongly agreed to as a positive factor. Self-confidence (#12) was agree to strongly agree as a positive measure of success as well. The career role model of the mother (#13) was disagreed to as a positive factor, but again by a majority of both groups. Marital status as a factor (#14) was given no opinion by the largest percent by both groups. However, disagree as a response to it being positive was the second choice. The level of teaching (#15) was given no opinion by both groups as to its being a positive factor. Effective affirmative action policies (#16) in a district were agreed to but disagreed to by 28.7% of the total group. Even with the indecision, there was still agreement of both groups. Nondiscriminating hiring practices (#17) were viewed by both groups as agree to strongly agree when judged as a positive factor. Flexible work schedules (#18) were disagreed to as a positive factor by both groups, but a trend toward a difference of opinion appeared here when a greater percent of nontenured people disagreed and a greater percent of tenured administrators strongly agreed it was a positive factor.

Equal distribution of work between men and women (#19) also had a trend toward disagreement. More tenured women agreed it was positive while more nontenured women administrators disagreed that it was a

positive factor. Finally, the use of an assessment center (#20) was rated "no opinion" by a majority with an almost equal number agreeing or disagreeing as to its value.

Figure 1 displays the complete picture with respect to the positive factors and the degree to which the two groups compared.

Both nontenured and tenured administrators agreed or strongly agreed that the items in Figure 2 show the positive factors about which respondents have no opinion and those items seen as not positive.

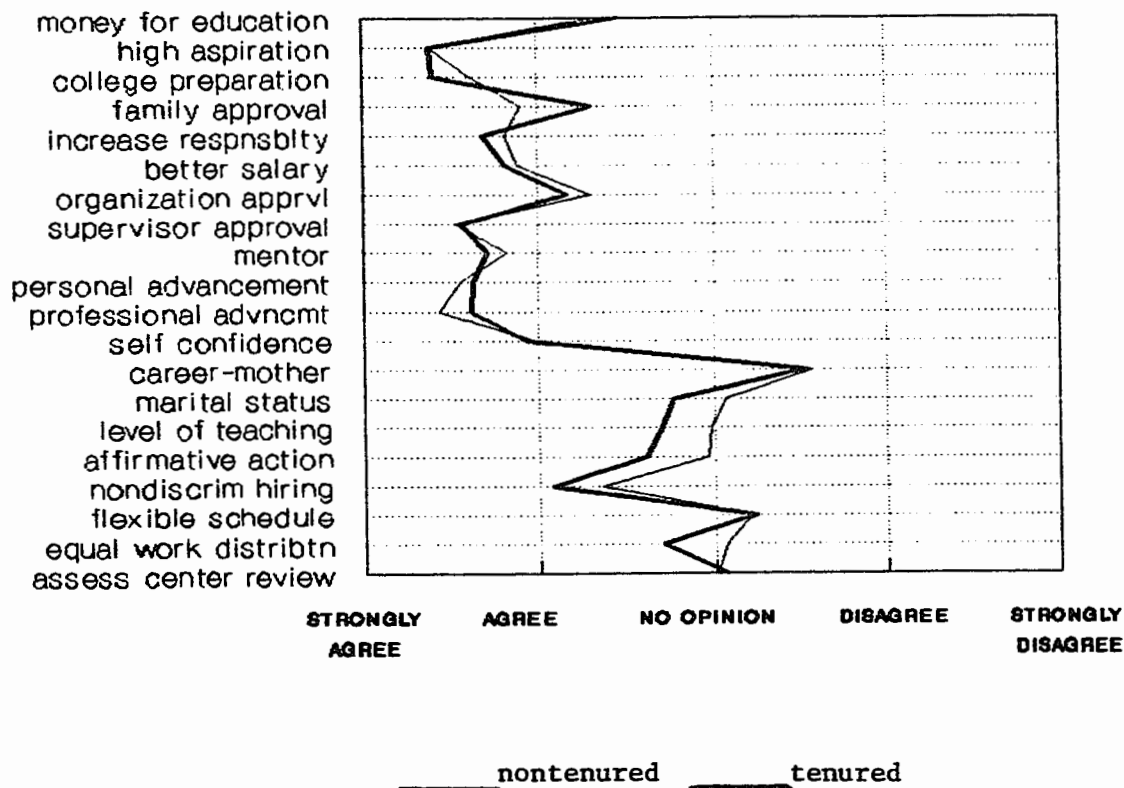


Figure 1. Positive influences mean scores.



POSITIVE	NO OPINION	NOT POSITIVE
1. Financial resources	14. Marital status	13. Mother a career role model
2. High aspirations	15. Level of teaching	18. Flexible work schedule
3. College preparation	20. Assessment center review	19. Equal distribution of work between men and women
4. Family approval		
5. Increased job responsibility		
6. Better salary		
7. Organizational approval		
8. Supervisor approval		
9. A mentor		
10. Opportunity for advancement		
11. Career aspiration		
12. Self-confidence		
16. Effective affirmative action policy		
17. Nondiscriminating hiring practices		

Figure 2. Positive factors of mobility for tenured and nontenured administrators.

### NEGATIVE FACTORS

Like the positive factors, Jones and Montenegro (1982a) identified factors that were perceived as negative to upward career mobility by female administrators in education. They identified the list of items on Table VIII as perceived negative factors.

Figure 3 shows that both nontenured and tenured administrators agree that the list of items were negative factors of upward mobility or factors about which they had no opinion. Only one factor, the unequal distribution of work, had any significant degree of disagreement.

Although most indicators show a strong agreement between the groups, there was a trend toward disagreement in (#4), absence of mentor and (#13), unequal distribution of job activities between men and women. Although both agreed that they were negative factors, nontenured administrators tended to be more negative than tenured administrators. Figure 4 graphically displays the trends. The trends may be attributed to the cited stronger need for a mentor and to the initial desire to succeed as a new administrator.

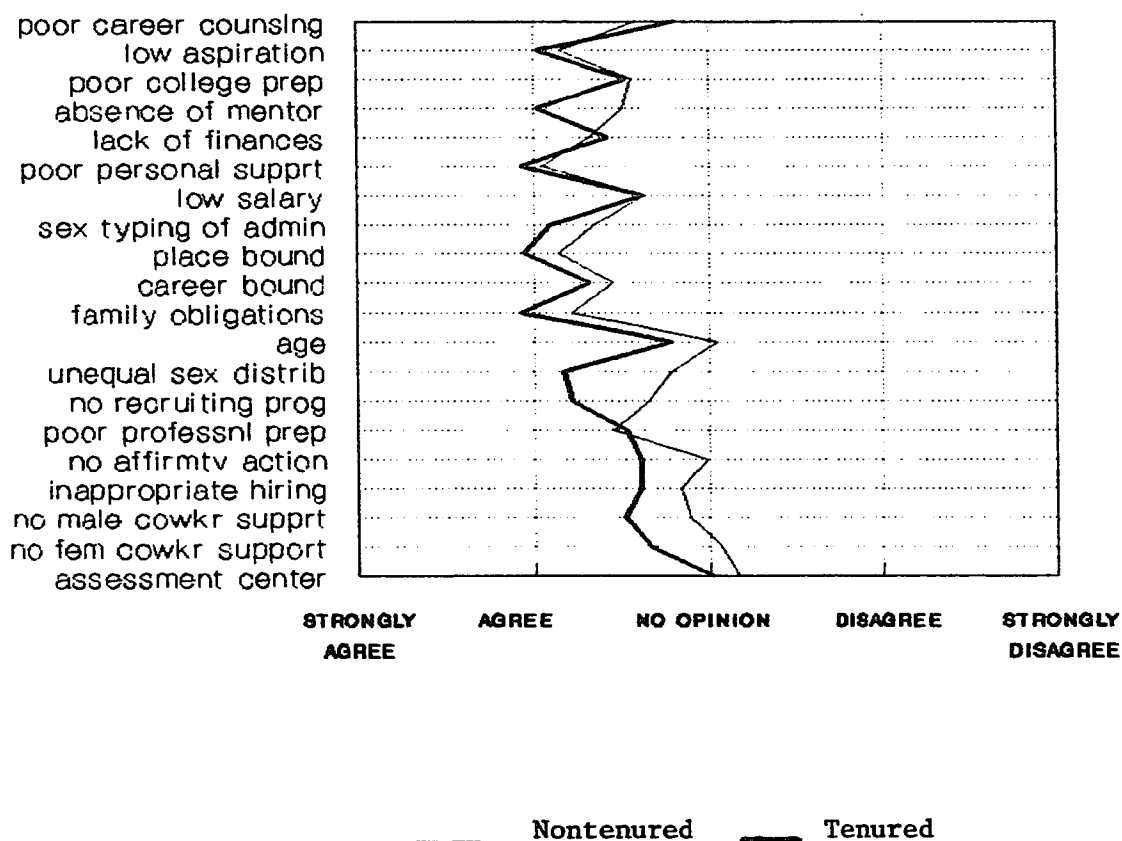
It is also interesting to note that age, affirmative action, discrimination in hiring, and lack of encouragement from other females were not seen as negative factors in both groups.

Like Table VIII, Figures 3 and 4, demonstrate that a few negative factors show trends on t-test and one was significant @  $p < .005$ . Generally, no significant difference between the positive and negative factors to upward career mobility were shown. By demonstrating that little or no significant difference exists, the following null

NEGATIVE FACTORS	NO OPINION FACTORS
1.	12.
Inadequate career counseling	Age factors
2. Low aspiration	16. Lack of affirmative action
3. Inadequate college preparation	17. Discrimination in hiring
4. Absence of mentor	19. Lack of encouragement from other females
5. Inadequate finances	20. Assessment center
6. Lack of personal support	
7. Inadequate salary	
8. Gender typing of administrators	
9. Place bound	
10. Career bound	
11. Family obligations	
13. Unequal distribution of work	
14. Lack of recruiting	
15. Personal marketing	
18. Lack of encouragement	

Figure 3. Negative factors for both tenured and nontenured administrators.

hypothesis is retained: There are no significant differences between tenured and nontenured female administrators and the factors (positive/negative) they identify that have influenced their upward career mobility.



**Figure 4.** Negative influences mean scores.

TABLE VIII  
NEGATIVE INFLUENCES MEAN SCORE

	Non- tenured	Tenured	t Value	Prob.
1. Inadequate career counseling	2.58	2.81	-1.00	n.s.
2. Low aspiration.	2.15	2.02	.48	n.s.
3. Inadequate college preparation/ credentials.	2.55	2.52	.12	n.s.
4. Absence of mentor.	2.50	2.02	1.93	.056
5. Inadequate finances available.	2.32	2.43	-.47	n.s.
6. Inadequate personal support.	2.05	1.93	.58	n.s.
7. Inadequate salary to support.	2.62	2.62	.01	n.s.
8. Sex typing of administration.	2.35	2.10	1.06	n.s.
9. Place bound.	2.14	1.95	.87	n.s.
10. Career bound.	2.45	2.32	.61	n.s.
11. Family obligations.	2.22	1.93	1.64	n.s.
12. Age factor.	3.05	2.79	1.18	n.s.
13. Unequal distribution of work assigned between sexes.	2.79	2.17	2.68	.009
14. Lack of any recruiting, selection, or hiring program.	2.65	2.22	1.84	.068
15. Inadequate preparation in personal marketing.	2.45	2.52	-.37	n.s.
16. Lack of enforcement of affirmative action policies.	2.99	2.61	1.50	n.s.
17. Inappropriate hiring practices experienced.	2.84	2.61	.84	n.s.
18. Little or no encouragement from male colleagues.	2.89	2.51	1.45	n.s.
19. Little or no encouragement from female colleagues.	3.07	2.66	1.62	n.s.
20. Use of assessment center where results are limiting.	3.17	3.02	.70	n.s.

### THE PROFILE OF A NONTENURED ADMINISTRATOR

The second hypothesis of this study states that there is no significant difference between the profile of an nontenured and tenured female school administrator.

The typical profile of the nontenured female administrator in Oregon had previously been shown in this chapter to have been an elementary classroom teacher or a speech teacher that had as her first administrative position the job of supervisor or coordinator. She was most likely to be between 41 and 50 and second most likely to be between 31 and 40. She was most likely married and in her first marriage. A small equal percentage have been divorced and/or are remarried. If married, her husband had a college education and was considered to be in a professional position as opposed to holding a vocational position. Most frequently she had two children and was next most likely to have no children.

As she grew up, her mother most likely worked at a job considered to be vocational. About a third of the time her mother was a professional person. She most likely had one brother or no brother and was then next likely to have no sister. Most of the time she was the oldest child and next most likely to be the second of two children. She was identified a twin only twice in the population.

For her religion she was dominantly Protestant. For her race, she was most likely Caucasian. In decreasing order, a small percentage of the women were Asian, Hispanic, or Black respectively.

Two-thirds of the nontenured women administrators who had previously applied for a position indicated that they had been rejected in previous applications.

The nontenured administrators' level of income was equally distributed between 35-40 thousand dollars, or between 40-45 thousand dollars. If she did not make between 35 and 45 thousand dollars, she was next most likely to have an income of less than thirty-five thousand dollars. She had most likely not changed her position since she entered administration.

Before being an administrator, half of the women taught twelve or more years. She clearly indicated that she would not return to teaching even if the salary improved.

On the question of gender discrimination, about half of the nontenured women administrators felt that they had been discriminated against while slightly more than half felt they had not experienced gender discrimination. She felt, however, that she had been personally discriminated against. She was positive that she had been personally discriminated against, but stated a mixed reaction on gender discrimination. She also stated that she had not been discriminated against financially. Professionally, however, the nontenured administrator felt discrimination had occurred. No survey question specifically asked why. Finally, in the area of discrimination, beyond gender, personal and financial, a large percentage of the population had experienced no other form of discrimination.

The nontenured female had been dominated by men about a third of the time. Fewer stated domination less than a third of the time, but

one quarter of the women stated they had experienced no male domination. Most of the time her role models were both male and female, and least likely only female.

She described her present setting as most likely being rural or from an area in an agricultural setting. Suburban, or outlying parts of a city, followed by urban as characterized by city dwellers was next likely. The administrator described herself as least likely from an inner city demographic setting.

She was most likely from a rural area of Washington, Clackamas, Lane, or Marion counties. Almost half of the nontenured female administrators were from four rural or suburban areas of counties near Portland, Eugene, or Salem. Finally, there were almost twice as many nontenured administrators in the sample population compared to the percent of tenured administrators. The identified population was the 1988 October female membership of the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators (COSA).

The Portland public school's personnel office and the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators reported that two-thirds (66%) of Portland's building level administrators or principals belong to COSA and would have been included in the study. A smaller percentage (50%) of district office level administrators belong to COSA. The state wide average includes about 95% of all levels of administrators as COSA members. Therefore, fewer urban administrators from the Portland area could have been initially included in the study, accounting for fewer urban or inner city persons.



## THE PROFILE OF A TENURED ADMINISTRATOR

The tenured administrator was also between 41-50 years of age. She was next most likely to be between 31-40 years old. This was very much like the nontenured administrator.

The tenured administrator in Oregon was most likely married, next most likely to be divorced, and remarried. This too was very similar to the profile of the nontenured administrator. Her husband had a college education and, if not, had at least a high school education. Most often her spouse was in a professional occupation. This too was very similar to the nontenured administrator.

The tenured administrator generally had two children, and then was most likely to have had no children. This again was very similar to the nontenured administrator. Like her nontenured counterpart, as she was growing up, her mother worked at a vocational position. As she grew up, she most likely had one or no brothers, and then less likely to have been the second sibling. Most of the time she was the oldest child in the family. Unlike her nontenured counterpart, she had no twins as siblings in the sample population.

The tenured administrator grew up as a Protestant. If she was not Protestant, she was next most likely to be a Catholic. Ethnically she was Caucasian, and if not Caucasian, by small percentages was equally likely to be Black, Asian, or Hispanic.

When she previously applied for employment as an administrator, seventy-four percent of the time she had had a refusal. Twenty-six percent of the time the tenured administrator achieved an administrative position on her initial application. Her present

administrative salary was most likely 40-45 thousand dollars, next likely 45-50 thousand dollars, and then less likely to be between 35-40 thousand dollars. The tenured administrator earned more than her nontenured counterpart. This may have been due to the time of employment as an administrator as being a primary wage factor for line and staff administrators in education. Almost thirty-eight percent had made no administrative career change. If a change was made, it was, by small numbers, from an elementary position to a district office position or from a secondary position to a district office position.

The tenured administrator taught almost equally 9-12 years or 6-9 years before becoming an administrator. When asked whether she would return to teaching if the money were better, she said she would not.

When the tenured administrator was asked whether she had been discriminated against, her responses were mixed. Fifty-six percent of the time she indicated she had been discriminated against by gender. By an almost equal percentage she indicated she had been personally discriminated against. Financially, she indicated she had not been discriminated against, but professionally, she had been a victim of discrimination. Beyond these four areas, little indication of other types of discrimination had been experienced.

The dominance of the tenured administrator's career by men was not frequently cited. Men and women were cited more often as having been role models for her career. Another female was seldom named as having been a role model. This, like the other areas, parallels the nontenured administrator's progress in education administration.

The tenured administrator, like the nontenured administrator, was most likely to work in a rural setting. Suburban and urban settings were identified as the next likely settings in which a tenured administrator worked. Like the nontenured administrator, the tenured administrator seldom worked in the inner city.

The tenured administrator, like the nontenured administrator, primarily lived in one of four counties near the metropolitan areas of Portland, Eugene, or Salem. Rural Lane and Washington counties were most likely where she would live, while Clackamas and Marion counties were less likely respectively.

#### EDUCATION LEVEL

The education level of the profile was treated separately so as to better compare the homogeneity of both groups. All administrators in the sample have a bachelor's degree. Most achieved the degree between 1965 and 1975. The year with the highest B.A. graduation rate with 12.2% of the nontenured administrators and 11.9% of the tenured administrators graduating was 1968. All administrators in both groups also had master's degrees. Most were achieved between 1971 and the present, with almost equal annual percentage distribution between the two groups. Most of the administrators in both groups received their administrative certification between 1980 and 1988. The greatest percentage (57.8%) received their certification between 1984 and 1987. More nontenured administrators were certified in the 1984-87 time period than tenured administrators. Tenured administrators were more frequently certified in 1981 (9.5%), 1984 (11.9%), 1985 (9.5), and 1986 (16.7%).

For women administrators, Shakeshaft (1987) cites that a doctoral degree was more prevalent as a percentage of the population than it was for men in the profession. This study indicates that 11.2% of the total sample have doctoral degrees. Nontenured administrators have 8.1% of their group with a doctoral degree, while 16.7% of the tenured group has a PhD or EdD degree.

Table IX documents the strong demographic similarities of both groups and also proves to retain the study's second hypothesis that: There is no difference between the profile of the nontenured and tenured Oregon school administrator.

#### SUMMARY

The data demonstrate that as administrators there is little difference between women beginning a career and those that are successful. Two negative factors show a tendency toward being significant. Those factors are: 1) the absence of a mentor @  $P < .056$  and 2) the lack of recruiting efforts for women @  $P < .068$ . One negative factor is significant at  $P < .05$ . That factor is the unequal distribution of work between men and women (.009). The likenesses of both groups are also very great when the positive factors are compared. With the positive factors there are only strong similarities, no significant differences or trends. With the many similarities, this information should be helpful to those women who, in the future, may aspire to be public school administrators.

Although there are some differences, most of the personal characteristics cited by nontenured and tenured female respondents

were very similar, as were the citing of the positive and negative factors tested.

The following conclusions were made from the data collected in this study:

1. Negative factors impacting both groups in the area of upward mobility include: sextyping of administration, inadequate career counseling, inadequate personal support (networking/professional group), inappropriate (discriminating) hiring practices, family obligations, and the absence of a mentor.
2. Positive factors impacting both groups include: self-confidence, high aspiration for an administrative position, increased job responsibility, remuneration, credentials/preparation and career opportunity.
3. Comparatively the groups did not differ significantly in their perception of the positive factors impacting upward mobility.
4. Comparatively the groups also did not show a difference in their perception of negative factors.
5. The citation of no opinion about affirmative action policies was questioned in interviews with four Portland area district personnel administrators. In districts having the highest proportion of women administrators, all personnel administrators concluded that the chief administrator's personal philosophy, not board direction, about affirmative action was the key to their greater employment ratio of women.

6. The profiles of nontenured and tenured female administrators in Oregon indicated that they were married with two children or less, had undergraduate and graduate degrees in education, ranged in age between 32-60, had a husband who was college educated and worked as a professional in trade or industry, were Protestant, Caucasian, aspired to administration for leadership opportunity, were personally respectful of others, hardworking, conscientious, intellectually competent, self-confident and optimistic.
7. The rural life was most frequently described as the female administrator's demographic setting. It is unknown whether this is a place bound or career bound condition. Both conditions were described as negative factors of upward mobility. However, it has been said of administrative positions for men or women that you start your way up the career ladder generally away from the city and work toward the city or larger positions.
8. The problem of female involvement is not an individual one, but rather a concern to society as a whole. As more women aspire to professional and management positions, widespread inequities, practices and tendencies in the area of upward mobility must be presented to leaders, given focus and direction toward eradication. This problem is obviously one of considerable social significance and attitude change for management as it presently exists, dominated by men and its male history.

In a December 1988 interview, Pat Schmuck indicated that until men are proven that the cultural stereotype about woman's place in society is broken, sex bias in education will continue. Perhaps as Pat Schmuck (1987) wrote,

. . . efforts like the Boston Women's Teachers' Group, the Research on Women in Education of the American Educational Research Association, the National Association of Women's Studies, and the individual studies and dissertations of women teachers and administrators can restore a proper perspective to the study of gender as it relates to educational institutions. Perhaps, for the first time, we will have an educational reform platform which simultaneously recognizes the value of education and the value of women in our United States (p. 93-94).

Implications of the data are discussed in Chapter V, and conclusions are drawn that are intended to help women achieve greater equity as administrators and help find ways to improve the development of women as administrators in education.

TABLE IX  
DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF NONTENURED AND  
TENURED FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS

Demographic Variables	Nontenured		Tenured	
	N	%	N	%
Age				
31 - 40 years	31	42%	16	38%
41 - 50 years	38	51%	23	55%
51 - 60 years	5	7%	2	5%
Over 61 years	0	0%	1	2%
Marital Status				
married	42	57%	22	52%
remarried	10	14%	8	19%
separated	4	5%	0	0%
divorced	10	14%	8	19%
widowed	0	0%	1	2%
never married	8	11%	3	7%
Husband Education Level				
high school diploma	9	16%	11	36%
some college	21	37%	4	13%
college degree	27	47%	16	52%
Husband Occupation				
vocational	12	21%	9	30%
professional	44	79%	21	70%
Number of Children				
0	20	28%	10	24%
1	13	18%	4	10%
2	28	39%	19	45%
3 or more	11	15%	9	21%
Child of Career Mother	45	61%	25	60%
Mother Occupation				
vocational	28	62%	18	69%
professional	16	38%	8	31%
Number of Brothers				
0	26	35%	14	33%
1	35	47%	14	33%
2	7	10%	6	14%
3 or more	6	8%	8	19%
Number of Sisters				
0	24	32%	13	31%
1	28	38%	21	50%
2	15	20%	5	12%
3 or more	7	10%	3	7%



TABLE IX  
DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF NONTENURED AND  
TENURED FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS  
(continued)

Demographic Variables	Nontenured		Tenured	
	N	%	N	%
Position with Siblings				
1	37	50%	19	45%
2	24	32%	15	36%
3	8	11%	5	12%
4 or more	5	7%	3	7%
Years Spent Teaching				
1 - 3 years	2	3%	2	5%
3 - 6 years	11	15%	6	15%
6 - 9 years	13	18%	12	30%
9 - 12 years	7	10%	13	33%
More than 12 years	40	55%	7	18%
Grade Levels Taught				
elementary school	23	37%	8	26%
middle school	7	11%	2	7%
high school	8	13%	13	42%
elem and middle	12	19%	1	3%
middle and high	7	11%	4	13%
elem, middle and high	6	10%	3	10%
Ever Taught Out-of-State	33	45%	14	34%
If \$ Higher, Teach Again	12	17%	3	8%
Discrim Against By Gender	34	48%	22	56%
If yes, how:				
personally	22	65%	13	52%
financially	8	24%	8	32%
professionally	23	68%	21	84%
other	6	18%	5	20%
Difficulties w Male Dom.				
none	18	24%	7	17%
very little	22	30%	16	38%
moderate	25	34%	13	31%
considerable	8	11%	5	12%
extreme	1	1%	1	2%
Gender of Role Models				
male	26	37%	16	42%
female	16	23%	6	16%
both male and female	28	40%	16	42%

TABLE IX  
 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF NONTENURED AND  
 TENURED FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS  
 (continued)

Demographic Variables	Nontenured		Tenured	
	N	%	N	%
Setting of School Distr.				
rural	43	59%	26	62%
suburban	21	29%	8	19%
urban	7	10%	6	14%
inner city	2	3%	2	5%
County of School Distr.				
Baker	0	0%	1	3%
Benton	6	9%	2	5%
Clackamas	9	13%	4	11%
Clatsop	1	2%	1	3%
Columbia	1	2%	2	5%
Coos	1	2%	1	3%
Deschutes	1	2%	0	0%
Douglas	5	7%	0	0%
Grant	1	2%	0	0%
Hood River	0	0%	1	3%
Jackson	2	3%	1	3%
Josephine	2	3%	2	5%
Kalamath	0	0%	1	3%
Lake	1	2%	0	0%
Lane	8	12%	5	14%
Lincoln	1	2%	1	3%
Linn	1	2%	0	0%
Malheur	0	0%	1	3%
Marion	6	9%	3	8%
Morrow	1	2%	0	0%
Multnomah	3	4%	3	8%
Tillamook	1	2%	0	0%
Umatilla	4	6%	1	3%
Union	0	0%	1	3%
Wasco	1	2%	0	0%
Washington	9	13%	5	14%
Yamhill	2	3%	1	3%
Only Child	8	11%	3	7%
Twin	2	3%	0	0%
Number of Older Siblings				
0	34	46%	22	52%
1	24	32%	12	29%
2	10	14%	5	12%
3 or more	5	7%	3	7%

TABLE IX  
DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF NONTENURED AND  
TENURED FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS  
(continued)

Demographic Variable	Nontenured		Tenured	
	N	%	N	%
Religion				
Protestant	54	73%	28	67%
Catholic	14	19%	5	12%
Jewish	0	0%	3	7%
other	1	1%	2	5%
none	5	7%	4	10%
Ethnicity				
White	68	93%	39	93%
Black	0	0%	1	2%
Asian	3	4%	1	2%
Hispanic	2	3%	1	2%
Educationa Level				
bachelors degree	1	1%	1	2%
masters degree	67	91%	34	81%
PhD	6	8%	7	17%
Rejected for Admin Job	50	67%	31	74%
Current Salary				
Less than \$35,000	22	30%	3	7%
\$35 - 40,000	24	32%	9	21%
\$40 - 45,000	17	23%	16	38%
\$45 - 50,000	9	12%	10	24%
More than \$50,000	2	3%	4	10%
Career Path				
elem to middle school	2	3%	0	0%
elem to high school	1	1%	1	3%
middle to high school	2	3%	1	3%
middle to elem school	2	3%	3	8%
high to middle school	1	1%	3	8%
high to elem school	0	0%	1	3%
elem to district off	2	3%	5	14%
secondary to dist off	2	3%	4	11%
district off to elem	4	6%	3	8%
district off to high	1	1%	1	3%
no change	51	75%	14	38%

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### INTRODUCTION

The following discussion, conclusions and recommendations are based upon analysis of questionnaires, interviews and literature regarding the perceptions and profiles of Oregon women school administrators.

A main feature of the study was to find the perceptions of Oregon school administrators to the lists of positive and negative factors that have influenced their careers. The lists of factors were created as an outcome of an American Association of School Administrators (AASA) study conducted by Jones and Montenegro and published in 1982, as Climbing the Career Ladder. This study involved the perceptions of positive and negative factors that women, selected as superintendents, believed had influenced their careers. A questionnaire was administered to all Oregon women administrators to determine first, whether the action would still be perceived as important, and secondly to determine whether, when the two groups, aspiring and successful administrators, were compared, would there be significant differences in the factors the groups would identify as influential or important.

### SUMMARY

The data indicated that Oregon women generally agreed with the results of the Jones and Montenegro study of 1982. Although there were slight differences in the mean scores for most of the positive influences of their careers. Both groups of women administrators, had no opinion about several factors. The factors that were identified for which the administrators had no opinion were: the influence of their mother's career; their marital status; previous teaching level; the influences of affirmative action; flexible work schedules; the equal distribution of work between men and women; and participation in an assessment center.

The negative factors tested in this study produced similar results to the positive factors. Most of the women agreed or strongly agreed with the identified negative factors. One factor, the unequal distribution of work assigned between sexes, was shown to be significant at  $P < .005$  between the groups. Disagreement was not expressed for any factor by either group, but both groups expressed no opinion about their age, affirmative action, male co-worker support, female co-worker support and the use of an assessment center.

A critical element of the study, beyond the identification of influential factors, was the development of a profile for the aspiring and the successful female Oregon school administrator.

An overriding interest in this study was the underrepresentation of women in public education administrative positions in Oregon. The background and interests, positive or negative, of Oregon women should add to the body of knowledge, research, and the comparative study of

profiles of women in administration. It is hoped that this study can help provide a more complete picture of the underrepresentation of women in educational administration and its effect on them.

The review of literature documented the domination of education administration by men and described many factors that have been attributed to the repression of women from administrative roles. Cultural norms and socialization (role) expectations placed upon women discouraged them from seeking management positions. The literature also documented discrimination by gender. It was not until Title IV of the Educational Amendments of 1972 and Title II of the Vocational Amendments of 1976 that prohibition of discrimination by gender was convincingly included in legislation and spelled out. Programs since that time have encouraged women to achieve administrative positions, but have shown only limited success.

Underrepresentation of women in administrative work has also been attributed to theories involving the attitudes of the women themselves and attitudes of males in superior positions. These attitudes concerned the role of women in the family, managerial problem solving, educational experience and the use of networking as a partial solution to underrepresentation of women in educational administration. Motivation and role modeling are also discussed in the literature as necessary for the probability of success in an administrative career. Most interesting, however, is the fact that what is good for women to do is also good for men when preparing for upward mobility. Two areas stand out as major roadblocks for women: (a) women are socialized to a lesser position, i.e. teach, but not administrate, and (b) since most education administrators are males, the future of males as

administrators is easier due to built-in role models. Literature and data results indicate, however, that future professional females need to have appropriate career role models (not necessarily male) like those found in the male population.

Although the literature identified fewer positive influences of upward mobility for women, most women indicated in this study that they did not feel that the men that had been influential in their careers had been a negative influence.

There is a rich literature indicating that men and women in educational administration have neither a shared history nor identical experiences. The effective woman does not copy the effective man, neither does she find that what works for him necessarily works for her. Rosaldo and Lamphere were quoted in Shakeshaft (1987) as saying, "We must integrate an interest in women into a general theory of society and culture."

#### THE INSTRUMENTATION

The instrumentation for this study was designed using the identified factors of upward mobility found in a study conducted in 1982 by Jones and Montenegro of AASA. Using the factors they identified and verified as having an influence on upward career mobility for superintendent level administrators, this researcher developed a questionnaire that contained the identified factors and administered the instrument to aspiring and successful female administrators in Oregon. The intent was to compare the groups, prepare a profile of the tenured and nontenured administrator and

hopefully enable aspiring women to make career decisions based on those of successful women in school administration.

From the instrumentation, it is important to note that nontenured and tenured women in educational administration identified separately and as a whole four personal characteristics in the same order: (1) "qualifications", (2) "administrative experience", (3) "knowledge of the job", and (4) "education". Other characteristics most frequently cited were "hardworking", "likes challenges", and a "strong leader, role model (mentor)".

#### DISCUSSION

The steady increase of women administrators, even though small, suggests women can secure administrative positions in education. Legal changes regarding employment practices and discrimination of females has helped. Measures to increase self-confidence, encouragement about career aspirations, and role modeling have been factors in the increased numbers of women in higher level educational positions. An increase in the number of women in administration has also been due to the changing flow of financial resources from colleges to female students in the form of grants and scholarships. Flexible work schedules and the need to support single parent families or the changing family structure have also been cited as additional reasons for change. Most important, however, is the approval from family, friends and society for women to have career aspirations, better salaries, decision making opportunities and administrative positions. The attitude change toward acceptance of women is essential for a further increase in numbers. Role modeling and



mentoring for females aspiring to higher than entry level positions in education is now more possible due to the steady, but small, increase in women administrators. This, combined with the previously described personal characteristics and personal preparation, should provide a better chance at success.

But, even with social changes, have all the vestiges of discrimination been eliminated? According to the respondents of this study, several barriers to upward mobility still exist.

Within both groups, the majority felt that gender typing of occupations still exists and continues as it did in 1982 when (Jones & Montenegro) found it to be a leading cause of discrimination among the negative factors in the study. Other factors cited as having a major negative impact were: inadequate recruiting, inadequate support groups, hiring practices, and family obligations. Although advances have been made, even in these areas, it still appears that there are hurdles to overcome if you are a woman and aspire to be a school administrator.

Although the situation has improved, it appears that the positive and negative factors for upward mobility for female educators have not changed and are still problems. As one male personnel administrator said, "Two-hundred years of male attitudes cannot be changed in the last twenty years of legislation, policy, or practice."

One thing we do know about women in educational administrative positions is that they have planned for their career. Sixty-five percent of the female principals decided on education as a career in high school and eighty-five percent reported that teaching was their first choice for a career. Men in education chose teaching as a

career only 27% of the time as high school students and only 46% of the time chose education as their primary occupation. These figures from Gross and Trask (1976) clearly indicate that education is a major interest for women.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study have implications for women and men as educational leaders and policy making bodies in education. The impact of procedures, practices, policies and attitudes has a definite effect on female administrators. The results of the study and review of literature clearly show a slow trend toward females being employed in greater numbers. The trend is encouraging, but the strong suggestion of literature still shows that the inequities of gender contribute to low representation of women in administration. Male leadership will take time to change, but clearly women can have a significant impact on educational administration.

The results of this study yield the following implication for the study of women in education administration:

- 1) It appears that many barriers come from external sources, such as the lack of role models (female), the "good old boy" network to promote opportunity, influential sponsors, and the fact that women are often "left out" when job opportunities exist.
- 2) There is a need for early identification of women with potential for leadership. Counseling about occupational choices should be considered early in the educational career.
- 3) There is a need for university programs to provide leadership with sponsors and mentor programs for administrator development

and training situations.

- 4) Despite the limited opportunities for women in educational administration, they must stay prepared. . . work for the administrative certificates, attend assessment centers, be involved with influential others, and avail themselves when positions become available.
- 5) For leaders in the education profession, it is important to know that discriminatory selection and hiring practices do and have occurred because men have dominated that process. It is equally important to know that women are more than adequately trained with skills and abilities to perform the responsibilities and duties of an administrator. Leaders should strive to understand the impact of underrepresentation of women in the profession. The adherence to affirmative action and the evaluation of hiring practices for evidences of discrimination should be undertaken or more closely monitored.
- 6) For all of education there needs to be recognition that we will all be better off when we choose the best person for the position.

Recommendations from this study for women in education administration are as follows:

- 1) Women students should intern with women administrators whenever possible.
- 2) For boards of education and selection committees, again mostly dominated by men, it is important that they monitor at the policy level the affirmative action and career counseling procedures that involve women in the workforce.
- 3) One observation about the influence of any group or organization

in history is that it is remembered by how well it is documented. The documentation of women in education's history is sketchy, narrow in its focus, and limited to recent documentation. Women and educational organizations must document their influence and work through organized networks and professional publications. Anything less than a commitment by women in the profession to document their work and exude their influence will result in an educational history that shows a biased male influence. To eliminate the barriers women must work to change the androcentric nature of the culture in which they wish to work. "To do this," suggests Shakeshaft (1982), "Behavioral changes in men and women, structural and legal changes in school and society, and attitudinal changes in everyone must be achieved. No one strategy can be used - many must be used to accomplish this revolution." (p. 126).

- 4) It is recommended that theory and research need to be restructured and reconceptualized to better include women. Until this is done we are writing a history and practice about men in education administration.
- 5) A specific recommendation is for the development training programs. Courses should be expanded to include women's experiences in administration as an integrated part of the course and not a separate course. Professional organizations, like the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), and the National School Boards Association (NSBA) should be requested by

universities and districts to prepare curricular aids that incorporate the female world of education.

- 6) It is recommended that women document their history. Through the use of case studies and historical accounts of women administrators we should be able to develop programs and use female experiences to compare with the male experience.
- 7) It is recommended that women speakers should be brought into the classroom and on campus to discuss relevant issues of female administration to female students aspiring toward a career in education administration.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- 1) The systematic exploration of career paths, leadership skills, and risk taking skills of women in educational administration needs to be explored. Research in this area could be done in a study using equal groups of males and females presently working as administrators.
- 2) Research on the hiring practices of male vs female dominated administrations or school boards should be conducted with a focus on the application patterns of women, the demographic background of the districts hiring women and the composition of boards of education.
- 3) A study of male administrators with and without children should be conducted to determine what the effect is on their professional performance.
- 4) Study the networks that are available to women aspiring toward

upward mobility.

- 5) Conduct research, geographically across the nation, to test specific ways to foster upward mobility in administration for women.
- 6) There should be formal studies done to determine how to open channels for mobility for women at the school district, professional organization, and institutional level. For women to achieve upward mobility, a significant relationship exists between the strategies used in personal life, such as developing a more positive self-concept, setting career goals, attending training seminars and improving and documenting professional image.
- 7) Study the experiences of women that have been added to university faculties in educational administration to see what relationship and experience exists with those to whom they are teaching about school administration.
- 8) Research on the styles of women administrators should be supported and encouraged. Workshops should be undertaken at the university level in an effort to incorporate research and experiences of women into course materials.
- 9) In summary, research must be undertaken that reflects the presence of females and the female world. Only then will we be able to determine whether or not there are differences and, if so, whether they have any real meaning.

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## APPENDIX A

### QUESTIONNAIRE MATERIALS

March 27, 1989

Dear Administrator,

Recent studies indicate that women are clearly under represented in the education profession as administrators. Factors impacting upward career mobility for female administrators in education are a concern because there is only speculation as to why the under representation of women in the profession continues to occur at a time when it appears that many women may be qualified.

In an attempt to determine the factors that have impacted the upward mobility of women in educational administration, I would like you to respond to the enclosed questionnaire. This questionnaire is being sent to all female administrators currently identified as members of the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators.

Your candor and promptness in returning the questionnaire is of great importance. I have attempted to define specific factors as defined by current literature that impact upward mobility for female administrators in Oregon. I am requesting that you:

- (a) respond to each of the categories;
- (b) make any comments about any category or item that you believe to be unclear or redundant; and
- (c) make general comments about the thoroughness of each category.

Please return the questionnaire by Friday, April 7, 1989. Time is a critical element for me to complete this research project.

Sincerely,

Lee Chapman

Mail completed questionnaire to:

Lee Chapman, doctoral candidate  
Educational Leadership, Portland State University  
65579 E. Alpine Way  
Rhododendron, Oregon 97049

## Informed Consent

I, \_\_\_\_\_, hereby agree to serve as a subject in the research project of Leland D. Chapman, entitled Women In Educational Administration In the State of Oregon: Factors Relating to Upward Mobility, conducted under the supervision of Dr. John Lind, Department of Educational Leadership, Portland State University.

I understand the study is anonymous, but asks sensitive questions about marital status, religion, racial/ethnic background, income, and religion, to be used to create a profile of women school administrators in the state of Oregon.

I understand that the possible risks to me associated with this study might be psychological, or discomforts due to an invasion of privacy or inconvenience due to a demand on my personal or professional time.

It has been explained to me that the purpose of this study is to identify factors of upward career mobility for women in educational administration in Oregon, to create a profile of those factors to enable women seeking administrative positions to succeed, and hopefully, be better represented in the field of school administration.

I may not receive any direct benefit from participation in this study, but my participation may help increase knowledge, which may benefit others in the future.

Lee Chapman has offered to answer any questions I may have about the study and what is expected of me in this study. I have been assured that all information I give will be kept confidential, and that the identity of all subjects will remain anonymous.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from participation in this study at any time without jeopardizing my relationship with Portland State University.

I have read and understand the foregoing information.

date \_\_\_\_\_

signature \_\_\_\_\_

If you experience problems that are the result of your participation in this study, please contact the secretary of the Human Subjects Research and Review Committee, Office of Grants and Contracts, 305 Cramer Hall, Portland State University, P.O. Box 751, Portland, Oregon 97207, or phone (203) 464-3417.

UPWARD MOBILITY QUESTIONNAIRE  
FOR FEMALE EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS

Directions

This questionnaire consists of a list of factors that have been identified as impacting upward mobility of female education administrators.

Please circle or write the appropriate number or item in part I.

Example: D. Number of years in present position.

- |         |          |
|---------|----------|
| 1. 0-3  | 4. 12-18 |
| 2. 4-7  | 5. 19-25 |
| 3. 8-11 | 6. 26+   |

In part II and III please indicate the degree of agreement for the items using a 5-point scale.

Example: 1. Financial resources for formal preparation

- 1 - strongly agree
- 2 - agree
- 3 - disagree
- 4 - strongly disagree
- 5 - no opinion

Please respond to every item.

In part IV please check the appropriate answer from the list. Items I and J are optional, but would be very helpful in creating a profile of the successful female administrator in Oregon's public schools.

Part V requires that you identify career characteristics by checking all appropriate descriptions.

Part VI is again a check list of factors that identify your career pattern.

Your responses will be treated confidentially. This researcher will be the only one to see them. It is imperative that you consent to be a part of this research. When you have completed the questionnaire, please return it in one of the enclosed stamped, addressed envelopes. To assure your reply is anonymous, return your consent to participate in the second stamped, addressed envelope. Thank you for your cooperation.

QUESTIONNAIRE .  
OREGON FEMALE EDUCATION ADMINISTRATOR  
UPWARD CAREER MOBILITY SURVEY

Please circle or write your response to the listed items.

Please make comments or suggestions in the margins regarding clarity, logic, ambiguity or other items you think should be included.

1. Present position description

A. Position held immediately prior to present position \_\_\_\_\_

B. Present employment status

1. Supervisor
2. Coordinator
3. Director (personnel, curriculum, etc.)
4. Assistant principal (K-6) (K-8)
5. Assistant/Associate/Vice-Principal (5-8) (7-12)
6. Principal - elementary
7. Principal - middle school/junior high
8. Principal - high school
9. Administrative assistant
10. Assistant superintendent
11. Superintendent

C. Number of years in present position

- |         |          |
|---------|----------|
| 1. 0-3  | 4. 12-18 |
| 2. 4-7  | 5. 19-25 |
| 3. 8-11 | 6. 26+   |

D. Number of years in position immediately prior to present position

- |         |          |
|---------|----------|
| 1. 0-3  | 4. 12-18 |
| 2. 4-7  | 5. 19-25 |
| 3. 8-11 | 6. 26+   |

II. Factors perceived to have a positive impact on female upward mobility for an administrative position in public education.

1 - strongly agree      3 - disagree      5 - no opinion  
2 - agree      4 - strongly disagree

Factors:

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Adequate financial resources for formal preparation
- \_\_\_\_ 2. High aspiration for an administrative position
- \_\_\_\_ 3. College preparation and appropriate credentials
- \_\_\_\_ 4. Approval from family and friends
- \_\_\_\_ 5. Increase job responsibility (power/status)
- \_\_\_\_ 6. Better salary/better benefits (remuneration)
- \_\_\_\_ 7. Co-worker/professional organization approval
- \_\_\_\_ 8. Approval/encouragement from immediate supervisor or other district administrator
- \_\_\_\_ 9. Career role model (mentor)
- \_\_\_\_ 10. Opportunity for personal advancement
- \_\_\_\_ 11. Opportunity for professional advancement (career aspirations)
- \_\_\_\_ 12. Self confidence/training center involvement
- \_\_\_\_ 13. Career role model of mother
- \_\_\_\_ 14. Marital status: \_\_\_\_ never married, \_\_\_\_ married, \_\_\_\_ widowed, \_\_\_\_ divorced
- \_\_\_\_ 15. Level of teaching: \_\_\_\_ elementary, \_\_\_\_ middle/junior high, \_\_\_\_ senior high
- \_\_\_\_ 16. Effective affirmative action programs/policy
- \_\_\_\_ 17. Nondiscriminating hiring practices
- \_\_\_\_ 18. Flexible work schedule
- \_\_\_\_ 19. Equal distribution of work/activity assignments between men and women
- \_\_\_\_ 20. Assessment center review

III. Factors having negative impact on career mobility for females in education administration. Again, using the 5-point scale, indicate your degree of agreement with the items.

1 - strongly agree      3 - disagree      5 - no opinion  
2 - agree      4 - strongly disagree

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Inadequate career counseling
- \_\_\_\_ 2. Low aspiration
- \_\_\_\_ 3. Inadequate college preparation/credentials
- \_\_\_\_ 4. Absence of mentor
- \_\_\_\_ 5. Inadequate finances available
- \_\_\_\_ 6. Inadequate personal support (networking/professional group)
- \_\_\_\_ 7. Inadequate salary to support (family/spouse)
- \_\_\_\_ 8. Sex typing of administration
- \_\_\_\_ 9. Place bound (example: unavailable college prep \_\_\_\_, spouses employment \_\_\_\_)
- \_\_\_\_ 10. Career bound (unavailable college preparation \_\_\_\_, inappropriate job progression \_\_\_\_)
- \_\_\_\_ 11. Family obligations
- \_\_\_\_ 12. Age factor



- ☐ 13. Unequal distribution of job related activities between men and women  
☐ 14. Lack of any recruiting, selection or hiring program in district  
☐ 15. Inadequate professional preparation in area of personal marketing  
☐ 16. Lack of enforcement of affirmative action plan/policy  
☐ 17. Inappropriate (discriminating) hiring practices experienced.  
☐ 18. Little or no encouragement from male administrators/colleagues  
☐ 19. Little or no encouragement from female colleagues  
☐ 20. Use of an assessment center/device where results (when available) may be perceived as limiting.

#### IV. Background Description

##### A. Education

Undergraduate School	Major	Degree	Year
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
Graduate School			
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
Further Education			
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

##### B. Age, check appropriate range:

☐ 1. 20-30                      ☐ 3. 41-50                      ☐ 5. 61+  
☐ 2. 31-40                      ☐ 4. 51-60

##### C. Current marital status:

☐ 1. Never married                      ☐ 4. Divorced  
☐ 2. Married                              ☐ 5. Widowed  
☐ 3. Separated                            ☐ 6. Remarried

D. If married, educational level of husband: \_\_\_\_\_

E. Occupation of husband: \_\_\_\_\_

##### F. Number and ages of children:

☐ 1. None                              ☐ 3. Two (ages \_\_, \_\_.)  
☐ 2. One (age \_\_)                      ☐ 4. Three or more (Ages \_\_, \_\_, \_\_, \_\_, \_\_, \_\_)

G. Did your mother work outside the home when you were growing up?

- ☐ 1. Yes (Major occupation \_\_\_\_\_)  
☐ 2. No  
☐ 3. No mother-figure in home

H. Relationship in family order

- ☐ 1. Number of brothers  
☐ 2. Number of sisters  
☐ 3. Your position in order of siblings  
☐ 4. How many brothers and/or sisters are older than you?  
☐ 5. Twin

I. In what religion were you reared?

- ☐ 1. Protestant  
☐ 2. Catholic  
☐ 3. Jewish  
☐ 4. None  
☐ 5. Other, specify \_\_\_\_\_

J. What is your racial/ethnic background? (optional)

- ☐ 1. White (not Hispanic)  
☐ 2. Black (not Hispanic)  
☐ 3. Asian American/Pacific Islander  
☐ 4. American Indian/Alaskan Native  
☐ 5. Hispanic

#### V. Self-Description Inventory

The following terms have been used to describe career women.

1. Place a check beside those words you consider to be characteristic of you.

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to keep things in perspective | <input type="checkbox"/> open-minded                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to remember details           | <input type="checkbox"/> optimistic                     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> adventurous                        | <input type="checkbox"/> outgoing                       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> affiliative                        | <input type="checkbox"/> persistent                     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> aggressive                         | <input type="checkbox"/> possessing high integrity      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> ambitious                          | <input type="checkbox"/> possessing sense of humor      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> assertive                          | <input type="checkbox"/> possessing strong self-concept |
| <input type="checkbox"/> conforming, perhaps to excess      | <input type="checkbox"/> radical                        |
| <input type="checkbox"/> conscientious                      | <input type="checkbox"/> rational                       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> creative                           | <input type="checkbox"/> research-oriented              |
| <input type="checkbox"/> decisive                           | <input type="checkbox"/> reserved                       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> dominating                         | <input type="checkbox"/> resourceful                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> fearful of success                 | <input type="checkbox"/> respectful of others           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> flexible                           | <input type="checkbox"/> risk taking                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> hardworking                        | <input type="checkbox"/> self-confident                 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> imaginative                        | <input type="checkbox"/> self-directed                  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> impulsive                          | <input type="checkbox"/> sincere                        |
| <input type="checkbox"/> inquisitive                        | <input type="checkbox"/> task-oriented                  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> intellectually competent           | <input type="checkbox"/> thorough                       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> introverted                        | <input type="checkbox"/> trustworthy                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> objective                          | <input type="checkbox"/> unconventional                 |

2. Write below other words that describe you if omitted from this list.

---



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3. Please choose a single descriptor (from this list or elsewhere) which you feel most succinctly characterizes your personality/work-style in relation to your having been selected for your present position.

#### VI. Career Patterns

- A. Have you applied for an administrative position(s) which you did not receive?

☐ No  
☐ Yes What do you think accounts for your not being accepted?

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- B. Annual income from present position

☐ 1. Below \$35,000  
☐ 2. \$35,000 - \$39,999  
☐ 3. \$40,000 - \$44,999  
☐ 4. \$45,000 - \$49,999  
☐ 5. \$50,000+

- C. How have you changed career levels in administration? (Check those that apply.)

☐ 1. Elementary to mid/jr. high  
☐ 2. Elementary to high school  
☐ 3. mid/jr. high to high school  
☐ 4. mid/jr. high to elementary  
☐ 5. high school to mid/jr. high  
☐ 6. high school to elementary  
☐ 7. elementary to district office administration  
☐ 8. secondary to district office administration  
☐ 9. district office administration to elem. K-8 administration  
☐ 10. district office administration to high school administration  
☐ 11. no change

- D. How long did you teach before entering administration?

☐ 1. 1-3 years  
☐ 2. 3-6 years  
☐ 3. 6-9 years  
☐ 4. 9-12 years  
☐ 5. 12+ years

- E. If the money were better, would you return to teaching?
1. ☐ Yes
  2. ☐ No
- F. During your career, have you been discriminated against by gender?
1. ☐ Yes
  2. ☐ No
- G. If yes to F, how?
1. ☐ Personally
  2. ☐ Financially
  3. ☐ Professionally
  4. ☐ Other (describe) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- H. Has the dominance of men in the field of education administration presented you with some professional difficulties?
1. ☐ None
  2. ☐ Very little
  3. ☐ Moderate
  4. ☐ Considerable
  5. ☐ Extreme
- I. Who did you look to as a role model?
1. ☐ Male
  2. ☐ Female
  - Comment \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- J. How do you find the physical setting of your school/district?
1. ☐ Rural
  2. ☐ Suburban
  3. ☐ Urban
  4. ☐ Inner city
  5. Please name your county \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. It is my hope that through your participation the under representation of women in educational administration can be better understood and ultimately reduced.

**APPENDIX B**

**NAFE MEMBER SURVEY RESULTS**

# 1987 NAFE MEMBER SURVEY RESULTS

## Just who are NAFE members anyway?

You're getting older *and* getting better, according to our latest membership survey. As you gain in years, you're gaining in cash and clout.

The number of NAFE members in the 35-44 age group has grown by 10 percent, so it's not surprising that 13 percent more of you have been in the work force for 10 years or more. The best news is how far you've come in those years: 38 percent of you are managers, including corporate officers, and 50 percent of you earn more than \$30,000, with the biggest increase in the \$40,000 to \$50,000 range.

You're confronting the same major issues you were facing two years ago. The same 38 percent plan to switch jobs this year so they can keep moving ahead. Accordingly, a promotion or jump to another firm figured in the five-year plans made by 44 percent of you. And while we were startled to note that 18 percent of you intend to start a business in the next five years, that figure doesn't seem so remarkable after all when we remember that, across the country, women are starting businesses at nearly four times the rate that men are.

Thanks to all of you who answered our questionnaire, sharing the vital statistics of your lives with us and other NAFE members. Special thanks to our indefatigable survey-tallying team: Bill Tsevis, Elizabeth Smith, Doinette Sanders, Jack Frier, Michael and Carl Bruce, Jr. and Benjamin K. Korman.

Note: All answers are given in percentages. For some questions, the percentages do not add up to 100 percent, because multiple answers were required, or in a few cases, respondents did not answer.

### Age, Status and Salary

#### 1 Age

- 7% 18-24
- 41 25-34
- 40 35-44
- 12 45 and over

#### 2 Personal Status

- 29% Single
- 39 Married
- 11 Living together
- 20 Separated/divorced
- 1 Widowed

#### 3 Number of children living at home

- 69% None
- 16 One
- 10 Two
- 4 Three
- 1 More

#### 4 Education

- 12% Completed high school
- 7 Business/technical school

- 53 Attended college
- 28 Attended graduate school

#### 5 Number of years in work force

- 15% 1-5
- 24 6-10
- 61 More than 10

#### 6 Personal Income

- 5% Under \$15,000
- 8 \$15-\$19,999
- 17 \$20-\$24,999
- 21 \$25-\$29,999
- 24 \$30-\$39,999
- 15 \$40-\$49,999
- 8 \$50-\$74,999
- 2 \$75,000 or more

#### Career

- 7 Occupation
- 13% Self-employed
- 6 Corporate officer
- 32 Managerial
- 18 Administrative

- 10 Sales
- 18 Professional/technical
- 3 Other

#### 8 What kind of business are you engaged in?

- 12% Manufacturing
- 10 Health services
- 9 Communication/publishing/advertising
- 14 Financial services/banking/insurance
- 6 Education
- 6 Government
- 4 Law
- 6 Accounting
- 11 Wholesale/retail/trade
- 22 Other

#### 9 Number of employees in company where you work

- 27% 20 or fewer
- 14 21-50
- 26 51-500
- 33 Over 500

#### 10 Sales volume of your company (in millions)

- 25% 1-5
- 12 6-20
- 15 21-100
- 14 101-1 billion
- 21 Over 1 billion
- 13 No response

#### 11 If self-employed, how many employees do you have?

- 88% 5 or fewer
- 10 6-50
- 2 51-100
- 0 Over 100

#### 12 If you're self-employed, do you have a retirement plan?

- 34% Yes
- 66 No
- 42% Yes
- 29 No

#### 13 Which purchasing decisions do you make for your company?

- 21% None
- 28 Consultants/services
- 32 Office equipment
- 23 Computers
- 20 Telephones
- 36 Travel/conferences
- 12 Other

#### 14 Do you give business gifts?

- 53% Yes
- 47 No

#### 15 If yes, which of these do you send?

- 25% Flowers
- 20 Wines, liquors
- 13 Books
- 25 Personal accessories
- 12 Chocolates, candy
- 8 Other

#### 16 Frequency of business travel

- 15% Once a week
- 22 Once a month
- 63 2-6 times a year

#### 17 Are you willing to relocate?

- 55% Yes
- 45 No

#### 18 What major issues are you facing this year?

- 27% Career change
- 38 Job change for advancement
- 13 Job change due to company problems
- 15 Relocation
- 41 New financial goals
- 9 Changing marital status
- 11 Earning more than spouse/partner
- 6 Child care
- 2 Maternity leave
- 3 Flextime
- 1 Leaving job to start a family

#### 19 What are your 5-year career goals?

- 11% Stay in my present job
- 24 Promotion with my present firm
- 20 Move to another firm
- 15 Change career
- 9 Start a family
- 3 Take time off to devote to family
- 18 Start my own business

#### 20 In your opinion, what are the most serious obstacles in juggling career goals with motherhood?

- 1 Lack of time to spend with children
- 2 Lack of adequate child-care assistance
- 3 Lack of time to devote to career
- 4 Lost time that puts executive mothers at a disadvantage
- 5 Insufficient paid maternity leave

21 How do you pursue continuing career education?	28 How do you most often shop for personal and household items?	37 Do you intend to buy a car within the next two years?	3 Time-share
72% Books/journals	9% Personal shopper	42% Yes	8 Stay at home
18 Home study courses	15 Boutique/neighborhood specialty stores	58 No	42 What are your special interest activities?
33 Attending accredited schools	49 Department stores	If yes, which kind?	61% Reading
75 Attending seminars	33 Discount stores	61% Domestic	59 Movies/theater/music
22 Who usually pays for your career education?	26 Mail order/phone	39 Imported	60 Dining out
55% I do	29 For clothing, do you seek stores geared to the executive woman?	38 Do you use a travel agency for business travel?	33 Cooking/entertaining
45 My company does	53% Yes	72% Yes	37 Crafts/gardening/sewing
23 Do you serve on any boards?	47 No	28 No	26 Active sports
73% No	30 Have you purchased anything by mail in the last 12 months?	80% Yes	36 Physical fitness
27 Yes	92% Yes	20 No	43 What type of publications do you subscribe to?
12% For profit	8 No	39 Which do you belong to?	39% Traditional women's
88 Non-profit	31 If yes, what type of products?	18% Airline club	47 Business/financial
<b>Finances and buying habits</b>	49% Apparel	17 Travel club	40 General interest
24 How are you building financial equity?	35 Household	9 Hotel club	36 Trade journals
50% Savings plan	9 Financial	28 Health club/spa	25 Newsletters
39 IRA	17 Health/self-care	40 Do you belong to a frequent flier program?	44 Which of the following do you own?
26 Stocks/bonds	11 Food/gourmet	41% Yes	71% Automobile
25 Insurance	42 Books	59 No	5 Motorcycle
8 Annuities	55 Magazines	<b>Personal life, interests</b>	5 Trailer/mobile home
28 Money market/mutual funds	12 Collectibles	41 What are your 1987 vacation plans?	8 Boat
22 Company profit sharing	14 Home entertainment	14% Cruise	1 Plane
62 Real estate	8 Sporting goods	44 Travel U.S.	42 VCR
14 Art/collectibles	32 Residence	16 Travel abroad	59 Stereo/CD
3 Time-share	58% Own home/condominium/co-op	10 Camping	53 Photography equipment
25 What type of financial information do you need?	2 Own second/vacation home	21 Resort	36 Sporting gear
43% Basic financial planning	29 Rent apartment/home	<b>Professional life</b>	45 Who pays for your NAFE membership?
12 Credit	11 Own rental property	69% Me	31 My employer
33 Tax	33 Do you own a personal computer?		
12 Insurance	35% Yes		
48 Investment	65 No		
22 Retirement	34 If no, are you considering buying one?		
26 Which professional services do you use?	52% Yes		
39% Accountant	48 No		
11 Certified financial planner	35 Do you use a computer on the job?		
37 Lawyer	74% Yes		
19 Stockbroker	26 No		
37 Insurance agent	36 How many times per year do you rent a car?		
16 Housekeeper/childcare	83% 0-3		
27 Which credit or charge cards do you have?	10 4-7		
44% American Express	7 8+		
1 Carte Blanche			
5 Diners Club			
56 VISA			
51 MasterCard			
8 Discover			
75 Retail Store			
4 None			

	Valuable would/might use	Not valuable wouldn't use
NAFE-endorsed investment programs	82%	18%
NAFE-endorsed seminars	88	12
NAFE Foundation	69	31
NAFE merchandise program	79	21
Travel services for business/vacation	83	17
Discount travel services	91	9
Tax-deferred annuity plan (high interest could be deferred until withdrawn)	64	36
Group long-term disability insurance	42	58
Group health insurance	40	60
Venture capital fund	53	47
NAFE Job bank	83	17
Career/Network hotline	84	16
800 # Access NAFE data base	78	22